

The University of Chicago

THE EDUCATION OF TEACHERS  
IN THE MIDDLE STATES

AN HISTORICAL STUDY OF THE PROFESSIONAL  
EDUCATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL TEACHERS  
AS A STATE FUNCTION

A DISSERTATION SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY  
OF THE DIVISION OF THE SOCIAL SCIENCES  
IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF DOCTOR  
OF PHILOSOPHY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION  
1941

By  
OTTO WELTON SNARR

CHICAGO, ILLINOIS  
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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

The first century of the professional education of teachers in the United States recently came to a close. Such education was directly dependent upon the development of the public school system. Throughout the century the American people displayed a growing faith in education as a means of perpetuating the ideal of the democratic form of government. In harmony with their faith they made education a function of the state, free to the children of all classes and mandatory within the range of certain ages. The result was a public school system constituted of administrative units extending from the kindergarten to the state university. To provide an adequate supply of teachers became a challenging task. Uncertainty with respect to appropriate agencies for the education of teachers and with respect to the relationship of those agencies to other units of the school system provided opportunities for educational research. As yet the field of research in teacher education has not been well cultivated. The need for basic studies therein has supplied the motive for this investigation.

#### Statement of Problem

The problem of the investigation is threefold: (1) to determine the social factors that have conditioned the education of teachers, (2) to determine the nature of the agencies that have supplied teachers for the public schools and their programs, and (3) to determine the trend in teacher education that is now manifesting itself in current practices. The study involves both an



analysis of the documentary records and a compilation of the quantitative data bearing on the problem.

#### Limitations of Study

Two limitations have been placed upon the investigation: (1) The study is regional in its geographical scope, and (2) it is confined to professional education by the state. It covers the entire period of teacher education for the region of the investigation.

Geographically the study comprises that region of the United States referred to as the Middle States including Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Iowa, and Missouri. This region was selected in part because it possesses homogeneity in the essential aspects of the life of its people and in part because it is unique in its educational development. Evidence in support of the existence of similar conditions among the states of the region is found in Odum's Southern Regions of the United States<sup>1</sup> and in the report of the National Resources Committee on Problems of a Changing Population.<sup>2</sup> In a part of his study of Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth<sup>3</sup> Edwards has used the same regional classification. All the reports have appeared since the inception of this study more than ten years ago. Evidence of the unique educational development is found in the early state policies with respect to district schools, graded schools,

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<sup>1</sup>Howard W. Odum, Southern Regions of the United States, pp. 269-70. Chapel Hill: The University of North Carolina Press, 1936.

<sup>2</sup>National Resources Committee, The Problems of a Changing Population, p. 38. Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1938.

<sup>3</sup>Newton Edwards, Equal Educational Opportunities for Youth, p. 32. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1939.

high schools, state universities, and technical schools in each of the eight states.

The investigation has been limited to the professional education of teachers as a state function. That limitation seemed wise even though both denominational and privately endowed colleges were in the early history of the region the main sources available for the education of teachers. It is to be noted that their graduates were not professionally educated. The Ordinance of 1785, setting aside the sixteenth section of each township for the support of education, ultimately assured a system of public education in the states carved from the Northwest Territory. Upon admission to the Union, each of the states, as well as Minnesota (only a part of which was in the Northwest Territory), Iowa, and Missouri accepted education as a public responsibility. Restricting the investigation to the professional education of teachers as a state function has kept the study within the limits of the time and the space available for the undertaking without appreciably distorting its reliability.

The investigation covers a period of somewhat more than one hundred years. In 1849, within a decade of the establishment of the first state normal school at Lexington, Massachusetts, the legislature of Michigan made legal and financial provisions for the normal school that was opened at Ypsilanti in 1853. For two decades before the opening of the Michigan school, educators had been urging the legislatures of the several states to establish schools for the professional education of teachers. The early efforts to arouse public opinion to the need for professionally educated teachers mark the point at which this investigation begins: current practices in teacher education mark its culmination.

### Sources of Data

The data have been obtained from both primary and secondary sources. In so far as possible only primary sources have been used. Reports of the United States Census Bureau and of the United States Bureau of Education (now the United States Office of Education) have provided facts concerning population and public-school enrollment. Governors' messages, legislative documents, and session laws have yielded valuable information. The reports of most worth, perhaps, have been those of chief state school officers and of officials of state institutions designed for the professional education of teachers. The latter have included reports of governing boards, of presidents of normal schools and teachers' colleges, of deans of colleges and schools of education in state universities, and of members of the faculties of the various institutions. Reports of such educational organizations as the National Society for the Study of Education and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools have supplied data particularly valuable for the later phases of the investigation. For the earlier phases of the study the transactions of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers, which convened annually in Cincinnati, Ohio, from 1829 to 1839, have proved valuable. In addition to the sources enumerated, various other sources have been freely drawn upon. These--too numerous to list--consist of books, pamphlets, reports of investigations, and personal letters.

### Organization of the Investigation

Preliminary survey of the sources indicated that the development of the professional education of teachers had fallen into the following categories around which the detailed findings

are organized: (1) early need for professionally educated teachers and practices in securing them; (2) normal training departments and departments of education in state universities; (3) state normal schools as agencies for the professional education of teachers; and (4) modern agencies and their programs for the professional education of teachers.

The first stage in the professional preparation of teachers is characterized by the efforts of educators to arouse the public to the need for professionally educated teachers and by experimentation with various practices for educating teachers; the second is characterized by further experimentation, particularly with respect to normal departments in state universities; the third is characterized by the utilization of normal schools for the education of teachers primarily for the elementary schools; and the fourth is characterized by efforts to meet the need for high-school teachers as occasioned by the unprecedented high-school expansion from about 1890 to 1930.

With the exception of teachers' institutes (merely supplementary agencies), none of the means employed during the early period became permanent agencies for the education of teachers. Because of the necessity for educating elementary teachers on a noncollegiate level, university officials failed to encourage the maintenance of normal departments. The departments either went out of existence or were transformed into departments of education when the demand for high-school teachers manifested itself. In response to the demand for high-school teachers, all state universities within the area of this investigation organized departments of education. For a period of approximately fifty years, normal schools constituted the main source of professionally educated teachers for the elementary schools. They also provided



education for high-school teachers during the early period of high-school development. When the demand for better qualified high-school teachers became urgent, state normal schools were transformed into state teachers colleges, and departments of education in state universities, into colleges or schools of education. Just as new demands of society for professionally educated teachers made those transformations imperative, present-day demands of society have occasioned recent innovations that will undoubtedly bring about major modifications in the program of teacher education.

## PART I

### EARLY NEEDS AND PRACTICES WITH RESPECT TO THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS IN THE MIDDLE STATES

Before permanent agencies for the professional education of teachers were established in the Middle States, educational leaders had resorted to various methods for arousing the public both to the need for adequately qualified teachers and to the means of securing them. The two sources used for determining the arguments presented in each instance consist of (1) the printed reports of the annual meetings of the Western Literary Institute,<sup>1</sup> covering the period from 1829 to 1839, and (2) the reports of the chief state school officers. The results of the investigation with respect to the need and to the means are presented in Part I under the following chapter headings: The Need for Professionally Educated Teachers, and Early Practices in Securing Professionally Educated Teachers.

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<sup>1</sup>The Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers was the outgrowth of the Western Academic Institute founded in 1829 in Cincinnati, Ohio, largely through the efforts of Albert Picket and Alexander Kinmont. In 1831 the Western Academic Institute was incorporated into the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers. The organization held annual meetings of from three to five days. The proceedings of the first ten conventions were printed. With respect to the influence of the organization Henry Barnard remarked: "It was not only one of the earliest educational associations in our country, but also proved itself to be one of the best, one of the most active, energetic, and laborious, and one of the most practical and widely influential." (Quoted from A Cyclopedia of Education edited by Paul Monroe, p. 766.) Published transactions reveal that many prominent educators of the Middle States took active part in the proceedings of the Institute. The proceedings, therefore, constitute an excellent source for the educational thought of the time. Promotion of teacher education was one of the main purposes of the Institute.

## CHAPTER II

### THE NEED FOR PROFESSIONALLY EDUCATED TEACHERS

The establishment of a system of common schools with state funds provided for their support was effected between 1830 and 1870. During the first half of that period much consideration was given to the need for professionally educated teachers. The discussion of the need is recorded in the main in two primary sources: namely, the reports of the Western Literary Institute and the reports of the chief state school officers.

#### Reports of the Western Literary Institute

Probably no better index to advanced opinion concerning the need for professionally educated teachers can be found from 1830 to 1840 than that contained in the proceedings of the Western Literary Institute whose purpose was in part to advance the teaching profession by making apparent to the community the great value of thoroughly prepared teachers.<sup>1</sup> The Institute sought to provide opportunity for an interchange of points of view concerning both methods of instruction and various systems of education. It was hoped that from exchange of ideas there would come improvement in the aims of education, in the courses of study, and in methods of teaching. The President of the Institute thought that something already had been accomplished. At the convention in 1834 he remarked: "The necessity for full preparation for the business of teaching is every day more apparent and more generally acknowl-

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<sup>1</sup>Transactions of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers, p. 3. Cincinnati, 1834.

edged.<sup>1</sup>

In 1835 the Western Literary Institute appointed for each of the states of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Kentucky, Missouri, Mississippi, Louisiana, and Tennessee committees whose duty it was to urge the respective state legislatures to provide for a universal system of education for all free citizens.<sup>2</sup> By 1840 the Institute included the state of Michigan and the territories of Iowa and Wisconsin; vice-presidents had been appointed for each state and each territory, and membership in the Institute embraced prominent educational leaders throughout the entire region of the Mississippi Valley.<sup>3</sup>

At the convention of the Institute in 1836, J. P. Harrison, M.D., said that "the profession of school teaching is one of weight and responsibility."<sup>4</sup> He contended that "no male or female teachers should be allowed to begin the onerous task of school teaching before a due preparation for the duties of that vocation." In the annual report of the executive committee for 1838, the general point of view held by the organization is well expressed in the resolution offered by Samuel Lewis, superintendent of common schools of the state of Ohio, and adopted by the Institute: "Resolved, That the present great want of qualified Teachers of Common Schools, is such, as calls loudly for such action as will supply the present and increasing demand."<sup>5</sup> The Institute did not limit its discussion to the need for professionally educated teachers; it gave much attention to the means by which that education might be supplied.

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 24.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1835, p. 25.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1839-40, pp. 137-38 and 147-48.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1836, p. 176.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1838, pp. 12-13.



## Reports of Chief State School Officers

In their reports the chief state school officers usually described the conditions of the schools and presented recommendations for the improvement of conditions that in their judgment were not in keeping with the educational demands of the time. The reports were submitted either directly to the legislatures or to the governors who in turn submitted them to the legislatures, together with their own recommendations. The reports were then published and distributed throughout the states for the enlightenment of the various communities. Although the reports were official, they may have been not entirely free from embellishments that more or less distorted actual conditions. On the whole they undoubtedly depict conditions as reliably as do any other available sources of evidence.

The need in Ohio.--In his first annual report, submitted to the legislature in 1837, Samuel Lewis gave official recognition to the need for professionally educated teachers. In depicting that need he said:

In almost every place, either in town or country, complaints are made that good teachers can not be had; every opportunity has been improved to become acquainted with the difficulty and its causes; that it exists to a ruinous extent is certain.

Without intending the least reflection upon good teachers, (and we have many in the profession that are an honor to the State,) it is my duty to say, that many of our common, as well as private school teachers, are unqualified for the task they assume. . . . The most general defect is want of learning and energy; and poor teachers are sometimes the most serious obstacles to the introduction of reform in their neighborhoods.<sup>1</sup>

Mr. Lewis did not comment at length on the problem of the education of teachers. Although he deplored the conditions with respect to poor teachers, he believed that another aspect of the

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<sup>1</sup>William G. Lewis, Biography of Samuel Lewis, pp. 137-38. Cincinnati: The Methodist Book Concern, 1857.

problem merited first consideration--that of adequate compensation. Men of learning, of talent, and of moral character could be induced neither to enter the profession nor to remain in it without emoluments somewhat comparable to those received in the other professions. He therefore addressed himself to the task of convincing both the legislature and the public that adequate compensation was the first requisite toward securing competent teachers. The legislature of 1837-38 requested Lewis to prepare a report on a university for the education of teachers.<sup>1</sup> Although Lewis reported favorably, the legislature took no immediate action toward the establishment of that institution.

By revision of the school law in 1840 the duties of the office of superintendent of common schools were transferred to the secretary of state.<sup>2</sup> Secretary Samuel Galloway in his report for 1848 referred to the need for normal schools.<sup>3</sup> To show the importance that educators of first rank attached to normal schools, he quoted at length from the reports of Cousin, Bache, Stowe, and Mann. The greater part of his report dealt with the values to be derived from professionally educated teachers and with the means by which they might be secured. Likewise, Henry W. King in 1851 pointed out that a serious problem existed on account of the scarcity of well-educated, competent teachers.<sup>4</sup> The situation was general, he asserted, as was evidenced by his correspondence with local school officers. He believed that the problem would continue as a source of serious detriment to the schools as long as no means were adopted for its special removal.

<sup>1</sup>Ohio Laws, 1838, p. 418.

<sup>2</sup>Ohio Acts, 1839-40, pp. 130-31.

<sup>3</sup>Annual Report of the Secretary of State, 1848, pp. 8-10.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1851, pp. 25-26.

In 1853 the legislature shifted the responsibility of educational leadership to a chief state school officer termed the state commissioner of common schools.<sup>1</sup> Reports of certain of these officers typify the general attitude relative to better-educated teachers. In 1857 Anson Smyth wrote:

By returns received at this office from eighty-five of our counties, there is found abundant evidence of the need of higher qualifications on the part of the majority of our Teachers. Of the 23,000 who have been examined by our County Boards during the past year, less than 900 have received first class certificates. More than half of the whole number have received certificates of the fourth or lowest grade.<sup>2</sup>

In 1864 E. E. White presented similar evidence on the qualifications of teachers and asserted it to be the duty of the state to provide capable teachers for the common schools.

The truth is . . . . these schools depend largely for the justification of their expense, not upon the theoretical importance of education, but upon the actual ability of the teachers employed to do their work, in all particulars, in such a manner as to meet the necessary requirements of education. Hence, the State, in assuming the responsibility for a system of common schools for the right education of its citizens, takes upon itself the duty of providing these schools with capable teachers--a duty much too long neglected.<sup>3</sup>

Practically every official heading the system of common schools in Ohio recognized the need for better qualified teachers; and yet, that state was slow to accept the added responsibility of supplying those teachers.

The need in Indiana.--Since the office of superintendent of public instruction was not created in Indiana until 1852, upon the adoption of the second constitution, the extent to which the need for professionally educated teachers was recognized before

<sup>1</sup>Ohio Laws, 1853, p. 446.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the State Commissioner of Common Schools, 1857, p. 26.

<sup>3</sup>Executive Documents, 1865, p. 408.

that date cannot be ascertained from the sources considered in this chapter.<sup>1</sup> Superintendent Larrabee in his report for 1853 said that there was general complaint concerning both the available number of teachers and their qualifications, that in many townships teachers, regardless of qualifications, were not available, and that in most counties those who presented themselves for examination could not meet the standards required by law. Therefore, he recommended leniency in the application of the certification law.<sup>2</sup> Two years later Caleb Mills reported:

It is painful to hear the complaints that reach us from every part of the State of the paucity of competent teachers. It is distressing to know that many localities can have no schools, because instructors can not be obtained; and it is but little mitigation of our grief to be assured by County Examiners, that more than one-half the licensed could not be legally authorized to teach, if a rigid construction of the statute on this point should be pressed.<sup>3</sup>

Samuel Rugg in the eighth annual report of the superintendent of public instruction reiterated the complaint when he said, "I hear from no county in the State on this subject, but what I hear complaints of the want of qualified teachers."<sup>4</sup> He asserted that next to sufficient revenue, competent teachers were the great necessity. He contended that the state, having assumed the responsibility of providing common schools, was obligated to make the schools as good as those provided by private agencies. In other words, the responsibility of the state to provide educated teachers followed naturally the responsibility of providing common

<sup>1</sup>The State Treasurer was designated superintendent in 1849, but his duty was merely to present statistics. For the creation of the office of superintendent of public instruction, see Indiana Rev. St. 1852, chap. 244.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1853, p. 195.

<sup>3</sup>Documents of the General Assembly of Indiana, 1855, Part I, p. 838.

<sup>4</sup>Reports of the Officers of Indiana, 1859-60, Part I, pp. 214-15.



schools.

The need in Illinois.--Both ex officio and elected chief state school officers in Illinois constantly called attention to the need for better-educated teachers. The report for 1847 states: "The want of competent teachers has been an evil loudly complained of, and difficult to remedy."<sup>1</sup> Again in 1849 the superintendent reported that "our state is not provided with one half the number of qualified teachers of common schools necessary to supply the schools that should at this time be in operation."<sup>2</sup> Two years later the superintendent proposed that the legislature should consider whether some provision might not be advantageously made, which would secure the education of a more adequate supply of competent teachers.<sup>3</sup> A vigorous report was presented in 1855-56 by Ninian W. Edwards, the first regularly elected superintendent of public instruction.<sup>4</sup> (Until that time the secretary of state had been ex officio superintendent of common schools.) Edwards' chief concern was the method by which the need for better teachers could be met. The need itself he seemed to take for granted.

The need in Missouri.--The need for greater competency in the teachers of the common schools in Missouri was early recognized. The first school superintendent remarked: "One of the greatest obstacles to the advancement of our system of Common Schools, is the want of competent Teachers."<sup>5</sup> A few years later

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<sup>1</sup>Reports of the Senate and the House of Representatives of the State of Illinois, 1846, I, 53.

<sup>2</sup>Reports to the Fifteenth General Assembly of the State of Illinois, 1849, p. 46.

<sup>3</sup>Reports to the Seventeenth General Assembly of the State of Illinois, 1851, p. 85.

<sup>4</sup>Reports to the General Assembly of Illinois, 1857, p. 272.

<sup>5</sup>Journal of the Senate of the State of Missouri, 1842, p. 470.

the superintendent included in his report a memorial of the curators of the University of Missouri to the legislature. Present interest in the memorial lies in a description of the popular attitude expressed concerning teachers.

It is well known, that so far as the professional instructors of common schools have hitherto formed a separate and distinct class, they have, in the popular sentiment, been liable to the reproach, whether justly or unjustly, of narrow and impracticable views, of an offensive or a ridiculous pedantry, of that ostentation of a 'little learning' which has been drunk in from shallow and unfrequented fountains.<sup>1</sup>

In 1853 the secretary of state, then ex officio superintendent of common schools, referred to the defect of the common-school system growing out of the need for a supply of properly qualified teachers. Of the numerous shortcomings of the schools, that defect, he thought, was the greatest. He remarked: "This is an evil all see and admit, whether the estimate of qualifications and excellence be formed in reference to scholarship merely, or to aptitude and skill and scholarship combined."<sup>2</sup> Five years later the superintendent reiterated the evil.

That there is a great defect in the one matter of teaching, no one will deny. I need not go into any argument or array of facts to prove to the representatives of Missouri that our common schools are badly taught, and in a majority of cases, by incompetent teachers. This fact is patent to all. There is a crying necessity throughout the commonwealth for a higher grade of teachers--teachers whose moral and intellectual status will raise them in social position, and make them 'lights of the world,' instead of marks for scorn and ridicule.<sup>3</sup>

By 1858 less attention was being given to the need for better-educated teachers and more attention paid to the means by which they might be procured. Subsequent reports of chief state

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1848, p. 212.

<sup>2</sup>Journal of the House of Representatives of the State of Missouri, 1853, Appendix, p. 288.

<sup>3</sup>Journal of the Senate of the State of Missouri, 1858, Appendix, pp. 7-8.

school officers indicate that the need was generally recognized and that the time had come to consider seriously the solution of the problem.

The need in Michigan.--As early as 1837, John D. Pierce, superintendent of public instruction in Michigan, raised the following pertinent question for the legislature to consider: "Without teachers, thoroughly educated and bred to the profession, what essential benefit can rationally be expected to result from the general establishment of primary schools?"<sup>1</sup> And Mr. Pierce did not leave the question without a suggestion as to how educated teachers might be provided. He thought that the contemplated branches of the University would be appropriate institutions for furnishing those teachers. Ira Mayhew, successor to Pierce, referred to the need for the specific education of teachers, including not merely academic education, but education in methods of instruction as well.<sup>2</sup>

The need in Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota.--Undoubtedly the states of Iowa, Wisconsin, and Minnesota profited by the discussion carried on in the older states. Iowa at the first general assembly provided that a professorship for the education of teachers of the common schools should be established in the University whenever the superintendent of public instruction should consider that action necessary for promoting the welfare of the common schools.<sup>3</sup> Two years later the legislature provided for the establishment of three normal schools.<sup>4</sup> During the first session of

<sup>1</sup>Documents Accompanying the Journal of the Senate of the State of Michigan, 1838, p. 41.

<sup>2</sup>Joint Documents of the Legislature of the State of Michigan, 1849, p. 24.

<sup>3</sup>Iowa Acts, 1846-47, chap. 125, sec. 6..

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., chap. 78, secs. 1-7.

the Minnesota state legislature in 1858 a law was enacted for the establishment of three normal schools.<sup>1</sup> The territorial legislature had stipulated that of the five departments of the University one should be a department of the theory and the practice of elementary instruction.<sup>2</sup> In the first constitution of Wisconsin that state made provision for the establishment and the maintenance of normal schools.<sup>3</sup>

Implications of the reports.--It is not strange that the early chief state school officers were content to limit their discussions in the main to the need for professionally educated teachers with little consideration for the responsibility of the state to provide them. The states had just begun to realize their responsibility to provide free educational opportunities for all children. Teachers of any description were scarce; hence standards necessarily were low. In order to keep schools open, officials had to content themselves with whoever presented themselves as teachers. Official reports show that only a fraction of the total number of teachers were holders of first-class certificates. The majority held certificates of the lowest grade issued. There was widespread complaint throughout the states that teachers were not available. Therefore, the first object of responsible heads of the school system was to awaken public and official opinion to the urgent need for a sufficient number of teachers as well as for teachers professionally qualified.

After the states had accepted the principle that education is their legitimate function, it was but another step for them to

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<sup>1</sup>Laws of Minnesota, 1858, chap. 79, secs. 1-14.

<sup>2</sup>Minnesota Rev. Sts. 1851, chap. 28, sec. 10.

<sup>3</sup>Constitution of Wisconsin, 1848, art. x, sec. 1.



accept the principle that the education of teachers is also a function of the state. Reference to the various state reports, particularly the reports of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, and Missouri, reveals the evolution of that principle. Although the states were slow to accept the responsibility for providing special education for teachers, gradually the idea permeated the consciousness of the people that public money expended on teachers who are poorly educated, who lack energy and ambition, and who in many instances exert vicious influence upon children is a misuse of public funds. It was inevitable that the state would sooner or later accept the responsibility of providing qualified teachers for the common schools. It is not to be assumed, however, that each of the eight states was immediately successful in meeting its obligation. Efforts in that attempt will be given consideration in subsequent chapters.

#### Summary

A review of the material presented in this chapter reveals the development of a recognition of the need for professionally educated teachers. The need was presented through the published reports of the Western Literary Institute and of the chief state school officers. In these reports is found also some evidence of a recognition of the responsibility of the state to provide means for securing professionally educated teachers.

## CHAPTER III

### EARLY PRACTICES IN SECURING PROFESSIONALLY EDUCATED TEACHERS

The preceding chapter has dealt with the recognition of the need for professionally educated teachers. Special attention is given in this chapter to the different means and agencies for supplying qualified teachers; namely, importation of teachers from eastern states; teachers' institutes; union or graded schools; high schools; and private colleges.

#### Importation of Teachers from Eastern States

Into the Middle States from the East, particularly from New England and New York, came many people who had been educated in eastern colleges and normal schools. Apparently these immigrants constituted a relatively large portion of the teaching body in the states to which they had come. In 1860 the commissioner of common schools estimated that about 3,000 of the 20,000 teachers of Ohio had come during the last five years from the East.<sup>1</sup> W. B. Starke, superintendent of common schools of Missouri, in his report for 1857 stated: "Of the two thousand eight hundred and eighty-nine teachers in the State, two thousand one hundred fifty-six were raised and educated abroad."<sup>2</sup> His attitude with respect to such a large number of teachers imported from other states is expressed in the following paragraph:

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<sup>1</sup>Executive Documents of the State of Ohio, 1860, Part II, pp. 157-58.

<sup>2</sup>Journal of the Senate of the State of Missouri, 1857, p. 116.

Normal Schools have been established in nearly all of the Eastern States, furnishing a greater number [of teachers] than can find employment at home. Those possessing qualifications for successful teaching find ready employment, whilst those known to be unfit are forced to seek a home where a lower standard prevails; and I am sorry to say that our State has presented an inviting field for such adventurers.<sup>1</sup>

Starke asserted that the condition exhibited the humiliating position of a dependence upon other states to supply their teachers and that the result was not only a scarcity in number, but what was still worse, a deficiency in qualifications.<sup>2</sup> In like manner David L. Gregg of Illinois in 1851 voiced his sentiment with respect to imported teachers.

There would be a great advantage in having a body of intelligent teachers educated in our midst, who are well acquainted with western habits, customs and feelings. It not infrequently happens, that such as condescend to come amongst us, from the eastern states, have conceived the idea that our people are but partially enlightened, and greatly need their services in order to acquire the elements of civilization and Christianity. The fewer teachers we have of this sort the better it will be for the public good.<sup>3</sup>

As the various reports indicate, the chief state school officers of the Middle States were not favorable to the influx of teachers in great numbers from other states. Naturally, therefore, they turned their attention to means other than importation for securing professionally educated teachers.

#### Teachers' Institutes

Teachers' institutes apparently had their inception in a resolution adopted by the state education convention held at Utica, New York, May 11, 1837. The resolution offered by Stephen R. Sweet recommended, among other things, that county associations should appoint agents whose duty it should be to encourage the

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Reports to the Seventeenth General Assembly of the State of Illinois, 1851, p. 86.

establishment of temporary schools for qualifying teachers.<sup>1</sup> The first institute was held at Watertown, New York, in the fall of 1837 under the direction of Sweet.<sup>2</sup> If the testimonials in Sweet's book, which was published nine years later, are reliable, that institute was partially successful in its primary object of rendering helpful instruction to the teachers of Jefferson County; also, it did much to stimulate the organization of institutes in other counties.<sup>3</sup> By 1845 institutes were being held in thirty-nine counties of New York; likewise, the idea had spread to other states. Four institutes were held in Massachusetts, two in Ohio, one in Pennsylvania, and several in New Hampshire and Rhode Island.<sup>4</sup>

Encouraged by a donation of the Honorable Edmund Dwight of \$1,000 to promote the establishment of institutes, the legislature of Massachusetts in 1846 made an annual appropriation of \$2,500 to be used for institute work.<sup>5</sup> In 1847 the legislature of New York also appropriated funds not to exceed sixty dollars per county for the support of institutes.<sup>6</sup>

Sweet reported a communication to the Teachers' Advocate of Syracuse, New York, from the Honorable Salem Towne, who had spent approximately two months in the fall of 1846 in the states of Ohio, Illinois, and Michigan organizing and conducting institutes. According to Towne he had organized an institute at Ober-

<sup>1</sup>Samuel N. Sweet, Teachers Institutes, or Temporary Normal Schools, p. 7. Utica, New York: H. H. Hawley and Co., 1848.

<sup>2</sup>Henry Barnard is sometimes given credit for conducting the first teachers' institute held in Hartford, Connecticut, in 1839. See Paul Monroe, Editor, A Cyclopedia of Education, III, 468.

<sup>3</sup>Sweet, op. cit., p. 33. <sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Massachusetts Acts and Resolves, 1846, chap. 99, secs.1-3.

<sup>6</sup>Laws of the State of New York, 1847, chap. 361, secs.1-6.

lin, Ohio, September 28, and another in Chicago, November 12. In the latter he had been assisted by William F. Phelps of the model department of the Albany Normal School. On October 26, he had opened an institute in Jackson County, Michigan. There Ira Mayhew, state superintendent of common schools, had participated.<sup>1</sup> The character of the institutes is well described by Mayhew in his report on the common schools of Michigan for 1845.

Teachers' Institutes are teachers' associations with protracted sessions. Where institutes have been established, the teachers of a county usually spend about two weeks in session, fall and spring, with a competent principal and experienced board of instruction, employed by a committee provided for that purpose. The several branches of study ordinarily pursued in our common schools, are reviewed; the different methods of instruction and modes of government are discussed; and plans are laid for concert of action. Lectures have generally been delivered before these Institutes by professional gentlemen and others, who from their devotion to the great work of popular education might appropriately be denominated common school commissioners.<sup>2</sup>

It is not within the province of this chapter to present a detailed report on the history of teachers' institutes in the Middle States. An understanding of their importance and their influence in the evolution of the education of teachers is, however, desirable. Such understanding can be obtained by an examination of selected reports of chief state school officers. For this purpose the reports for two different years have been chosen, those for 1855 and those for 1865. A comparison of the facts for the two years will show the development that was taking place with respect to the utilization of institutes for the education of teachers.

Institutes in 1855.--The reports of chief state school officers for 1855 manifest a generally favorable attitude toward

<sup>1</sup>Sweet, op. cit., pp. 53-61.

<sup>2</sup>Joint Documents of the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Michigan, 1846, p. 34.



institutes. Of the seven reports examined, six devoted space to a discussion of institutes as a means for the education of teachers. State Superintendent Barney of Ohio felt that doubt could no longer be entertained concerning the usefulness and the efficiency of properly organized and well-managed institutes.<sup>1</sup> The great advantage of institutes, he pointed out, was in the professional aspects of the education they provided. It is interesting in this connection to note that one of the duties of the state commissioner of education in Ohio was to spend at least ten days in each judicial district, superintending and encouraging teachers' institutes.<sup>2</sup> Caleb Mills of Indiana thought that the institute was the readiest means for satisfying the pressing need of that state for better-qualified teachers. He therefore urged the legislature to act promptly in making liberal provision for their encouragement and support.<sup>3</sup> State Superintendent Edwards of Illinois recommended that the legislature appropriate a small sum of money to defray the expenses of institutes in the counties where they were being conducted for at least five days in each year.<sup>4</sup> State Superintendent Davis of Missouri requested the legislature to provide aid for the institutes that were springing up in a number of counties.<sup>5</sup> Ira Mayhew of Michigan reported that the state legislature had in 1855 enacted a law providing for a series of institutes to be held annually by the superintendent of public instruc-

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<sup>1</sup>Annual Report of the State Commissioner of Common Schools of the State of Ohio, 1855, p. 30.

<sup>2</sup>Ohio Acts, 1852-53, p. 446.

<sup>3</sup>Documents of the General Assembly of Indiana, 1855, Part I, p. 838.

<sup>4</sup>Reports of the General Assembly of Illinois, 1857, pp. 272-74.

<sup>5</sup>Journal of the House of Representatives of the State of Missouri, 1855, pp. 139-41.

tion, that six institutes were held in 1855, and that both teachers and parents had manifested deep interest.<sup>1</sup> State Superintendent Barry of Wisconsin thought that institutes had accomplished much and that they were a necessary auxiliary agency to the permanent institution of normal schools.<sup>2</sup>

Institutes in 1865.--Teachers' institutes in 1865 were employed by at least seven of the eight Middle States as a means for educating teachers. The Missouri report makes no mention of institutes, though failure to do so does not signify that they were not being conducted. The entire report for that year was unusually brief. The scope that institutes had attained by 1865 in the states for which facts are given is shown in Table 1.

TABLE 1  
SCOPE OF TEACHERS' INSTITUTES FOR THE YEAR 1865<sup>a</sup>

| State     | Number | Attendance | Days in Session | Total Cost |
|-----------|--------|------------|-----------------|------------|
| Ohio      | 37     | 2590       | 8.44            | \$6,118.11 |
| Indiana   | 58     | 3533       | 5.25            | 3,468.50   |
| Illinois  | 46     | 2057       | ....            | 970.00     |
| Iowa      | 59     | ....       | 6.00            | 2,950.00   |
| Wisconsin | 33     | 1170       | ....            | \$.....    |

<sup>a</sup>Data from reports of chief state school officers.

As judged by the number of institutes that had been conducted and the number of teachers who had attended, Indiana held top rank, with 58 institutes conducted and with an aggregate attendance of 3,533. Iowa had held 59 institutes, but the aggregate attendance is not known. For the preceding year, however, 4,000

<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1855, 1856, and 1857, pp. 11-18.

<sup>2</sup>Governor's Message and Accompanying Documents of the State of Wisconsin, 1857, I, 22-36.

had attended.<sup>1</sup> That Wisconsin was making least use of institutes is evidenced by the fact that only thirty-three institutes had been held in 1865 with a total attendance of 1170.

The Ohio law provided two sources of revenue for the support of teachers' institutes: Application for funds might be made to the county commissioners. Also, two-thirds of the fee charged candidates for certificates was designated by law for the support of institutes.<sup>2</sup> Most of the institute funds were secured from the latter source. Indiana made legal provision for the support of institutes. The county examiners were required to hold an institute at least once each year in their respective counties, funds to be drawn from the county treasury to the extent of from \$35 to \$50 according to the number of teachers in attendance.<sup>3</sup> Iowa appropriated from the state treasury a sum not exceeding \$50 annually to each county in the state for institute work. Certain conditions had to be met. At least twenty teachers must have signified their desire to assemble for the institute and the institute must remain in session for at least six working days.<sup>4</sup> In Illinois support was entirely voluntary on the part of the various counties. The state superintendent complained of the weak support by the counties and strongly urged the organization of a state system of institutes.<sup>5</sup> According to the report of the state superintendent, Wisconsin had made no provision for defraying the cost of insti-

<sup>1</sup>Legislative Documents of the State of Iowa, 1864, p. 7.

<sup>2</sup>Executive Documents of the State of Ohio, 1867, Part II, pp. 616-17.

<sup>3</sup>Documents of the General Assembly of the State of Indiana, 1865, p. 314.

<sup>4</sup>Legislative Documents of the State of Iowa, 1866, pp. 7-8.

<sup>5</sup>Reports to the General Assembly of the State of Illinois, 1865, II, 140-43.

tutes.<sup>1</sup> He suggested that the legislature empower the board of regents of normal schools to use a portion of the fund under its control for the support of institutes. Such use of that fund he thought would be legitimate until the normal schools, which were just then being established, could supply a sufficient number of well-qualified teachers. It is true, however, that at the time of the report of the superintendent the normal-school regents were using their agents to assist in institute work and were paying not only the salaries of the agents but their traveling expenses as well.<sup>2</sup> The reports of both Michigan and Minnesota failed to state the means by which institutes were supported. The superintendent of Minnesota did report that a committee had memorialized the legislature for an annual appropriation sufficient to defray the necessary expenses of the institutes.<sup>3</sup> This indicates that at least state support was not being given.

By 1865 teachers' institutes had been accepted as one of the desirable means for the education of teachers. The institute, perhaps more than any other agency, supplied education readily accessible to the great body of teachers at moderate cost. Since institutes were mainly local in character, teachers of the entire county could assemble to review the common-school subjects, to receive instruction in methods of teaching and discipline, and to spend an enjoyable week at the county seat. The value of institutes, as recognized by chief state school officers, is aptly stated by Oran Faville in his report on the public schools of Iowa for 1865.

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<sup>1</sup>Legislative Documents of the State of Wisconsin, 1867, pp. 531-32.

<sup>2</sup>Messages of the Governor of Wisconsin, 1864, p. 301.

<sup>3</sup>Executive Documents of the State of Minnesota, 1865, pp. 347-48.

Every well conducted Institute elevates the standard for teaching, and thus elevates the schools. A large majority of our teachers have received their only preparation in the common school, taught by those who were trained only in the common school, and who have had no means of acquiring new and improved methods of teaching, the results of educational experience and skill. To them the Institutes are of incalculable value, bringing them in contact with the best teachers whose enthusiasm in their profession kindles a desire for improvement, and suggests means for securing it. Teachers' Institutes are no longer an experiment, but an acknowledged necessity wherever there is educational progress.<sup>1</sup>

The trend by 1865 was definitely in the direction of state support and of state supervision. Chief state school officers recognized the importance of bringing the institute under the direct control of the department of public instruction. County authorities were often dilatory and even evasive in providing financial support, since that support would mean an increased local tax burden. Also the county commissioners were primarily interested in the material development of the county, such as the building of roads and the constructing of bridges. As a rule, they did not look upon teachers' institutes with much enthusiasm. Some of the states, notably Iowa, sensed the difficulty and provided state funds to be used by the counties under prescribed conditions.

#### The Union or Graded School

The function of the district school, sometimes called the primary school, was to produce literate citizens of good moral character. That one-teacher school was designed for the education of the masses who, with few exceptions, would discontinue their schooling at the end of the common-school period. It was for that school that the great body of teachers before 1870 needed to be educated. It can not be iterated too often that conditions in the Middle States in the decades of the forties and the fifties and even the sixties were extremely primitive. Any type of educa-

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<sup>1</sup>Legislative Documents of the State of Iowa, 1866, p. 7.



tion, therefore, in advance of that offered in the schools where the teachers expected to instruct seemed desirable.

As villages and towns increased in number and size, they demanded educational facilities with efficient modes of teaching and management. The result was a new type of school known first as the "union school" and later as the "graded school." In 1846 Michigan made provision by which two or more districts could unite to form a single district. In the union districts pupils could be classified according to their advancement into distinct departments.<sup>1</sup> In 1842 a special act of the legislature permitted Detroit to consolidate various districts into one central school system.<sup>2</sup> Ohio had in 1847 enacted a law for the special benefit of Akron.<sup>3</sup> By the law that city had been incorporated into one school district consisting of six or more primary schools and one central grammar school under control of a single board. The following year the special act for the benefit of Akron was made to apply generally to all incorporated towns and villages with the exception of Cincinnati. Privileges of the act might be secured upon petition by two-thirds of the qualified voters of the interested corporation.<sup>4</sup> By 1857 Iowa had made provision for union schools.<sup>5</sup>

The nature of the union school has been well described by Ira Mayhew, of Michigan, in his reports of the schools of that state for 1855, 1856, and 1857.

Union Schools, distinctively known as such, were not primarily contemplated in our System . . . . and they are not,

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92. <sup>1</sup>Rev. Sts. of the State of Michigan, 1846, chap. 58, sec.

<sup>2</sup>Michigan Laws, local, 1842, Act No. 70.

<sup>3</sup>Ohio Acts, local, 1847, pp. 187-90.

<sup>4</sup>Ohio Acts, general, 1848, pp. 48-49.

<sup>5</sup>Iowa Laws, 1856-57, chap. 158.

what they are sometimes supposed to be,--a distinct order of schools, like academies, and constituting an intermediate link in our chain of schools, their chief office being to connect the Primary School with the University, by being converted into what are known as preparatory Schools. . . . They are rather an outgrowth from, and an improved condition of our Primary Schools. They may, and should be established, not only in cities and villages, but wherever the population is sufficiently dense to admit of bringing a large number of children into one system of graded schools, without embracing too much territory to be thus well accommodated.

The term, Union School, often misleads. Because, in the early history of these schools, they were often established by the union of two or more adjacent single districts, in villages and neighborhoods that would admit of it, it has therefore been inferred that where districts are thus united, there is a union school, and that where districts have not been thus united, a union school cannot exist.

The true idea would be better expressed by the term, Graded School; or, System of Graded Schools, as the case may be. The term Primary School, would then, in its lowest sense, signify a public school taught, chiefly, and generally, by a single teacher, as in the case in the Majority of the Primary Schools of the rural districts. The term, Graded School, or Union School, would apply to more populous districts, with one large Schoolhouse, having several different rooms, and employing several different teachers, each teacher having immediate charge of one grade of scholars, in one room, the classes being promoted from one grade to another, as they advance, having reference chiefly to scholarship, but sometimes, also, it may be, to age and sex. The Principal, or Superintendent, may have the special charge of the highest department of the School, and exercise a general supervision over all the grades and departments; or, in very large schools, the highest department, like the lower grades, may be under the tuition of a particular teacher, and the Principal, or general Superintendent might devote his time to visiting and superintending the different grades, examining classes, and deciding in regard to promotions from one department to another, by which means greater unity and efficiency may be given to the whole.

The term, Union School, is further employed to represent a System of Graded Schools. In the former instance the departments of the one Graded School were supposed to be instructed in different rooms in one central building. In the case of a System of Graded Schools, however, the lower grades are supposed to be taught in smaller houses, in different wards, or neighborhoods, each separate school, or department, being under the more immediate charge of a single teacher, with an assistant, if need be, and these chiefly females, whom experience has shown to be better adapted to the care of small children, and during the early periods of their education, than the other sex are. In this case, and especially where there are several distinct schools, and a large number of children in attendance upon them, it is highly important that a competent superintendent be employed, who, by visiting the different Schools and grades, and examining the classes,

and directing the promotions, and by giving his counsel and direction as may be needed, may give greater unity, harmony and efficiency, to the whole system than would otherwise be attainable.<sup>1</sup>

Hope was entertained that union schools would provide qualified teachers for the ungraded and the primary schools. An example of that hope is contained in another quotation from Mayhew in his report of the schools of Michigan for 1858.

Union Schools possess an important Normal characteristic. It is impossible, in a State like ours, for one Normal School to instruct one-tenth part of our primary school teachers. The course of instruction in our Union Schools being more complete, thorough, and extended, than in ordinary select and preparatory schools, pupils attending them will be likely to receive a training that shall more thoroughly fit them to become teachers. And especially is this true, when we consider that they have passed through the improved primary grades of these schools, with constant opportunities for witnessing the methods of instruction therein pursued, which should be such as to constitute them Model Schools.<sup>2</sup>

Mayhew even went so far as to suggest that the principal of the union school might, in the spring and the fall of each year, organize a class for teachers and offer a course of instruction especially adapted for those who contemplated becoming teachers. The report of the superintendent of public instruction a decade later stated: "These schools are annually training teachers for the district schools. Teachers' classes have been organized in many of them, and have been conducted with gratifying results."<sup>3</sup> Apparently union schools did not become generally popular for the education of teachers. At the time that union and graded schools were being established, other agencies for the education of teachers were also emerging.

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<sup>1</sup>Reports of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1855, 1856, and 1857, pp. 47-49.

<sup>2</sup>Documents of the State of Michigan, 1858, p. 61.

<sup>3</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1865, p. 21.

### The High School

The union school usually had a higher department known as the "high school." Iowa was the first of the eight states to make legal provision for the education of teachers in high schools. In 1858 the legislature established high-school scholarships for young men and young women who aspired to teach in the common schools of the state. The enactment provided that "there shall be established in every county of the state, having a high school therein, as many scholarships as there are school districts therein, and one scholarship shall be assigned to each district."<sup>1</sup> The law stipulated further that the board of directors and the principal teacher of each district should select the student for that district scholarship award. Selection was to be made on the basis of ability, attainment, and capacity for teaching. Any student selected for the award was entitled to free instruction in the high school of his county. Upon presentation of evidence from the high school that he had been a faithful student, exemplary in deportment, and ranking in scholarship in the first half of his class, the student would be paid by the county treasurer fifty dollars annually for a period of three years. Any one who had held a scholarship must teach for a period equal to the number of years of his award. Deduction of fifty dollars annually would be made for three years from the salary he should receive for teaching. Any one refusing to fulfill his obligation to teach would be required to pay into the county treasury the amount of money equivalent to his award. The amount was recoverable by law.

Soon after the enactment of the law, the superintendent of public instruction expressed the opinion that the law was de-

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<sup>1</sup>Iowa Acts, 1858, chap. 52, secs. 34-39.



signed to substitute high schools for normal schools.<sup>1</sup> He anticipated that high schools would offer courses in the theory and the art of teaching; but in view of the fact that the establishment of high schools within the counties was optional, he was apprehensive whether or not the new plan would provide a sufficient number of qualified teachers. He hoped that within a short time there be but few counties, if any, devoid of high schools. Although the law remained in force for at least twelve years,<sup>2</sup> there is no evidence either that any appreciable number of high schools provided courses for the education of teachers or that any sizable number of students ever took advantage of the scholarships.

High schools in Wisconsin were encouraged to establish and maintain normal departments. In 1859 the statute for the encouragement of academies and normal schools was revised to make high schools with normal departments eligible for a share of the income from the funds arising from the sale of swamp and overflowed lands.<sup>3</sup> The Board of Regents, under whose authority the fund was administered, reported in 1864 that three high schools had received aid for educating teachers, and that fifteen students had been enrolled for whom compensation had been allowed at the rate of thirty dollars a student.<sup>4</sup> In 1865 the statute was revised so that compensation to high schools for the education of teachers was no longer allowed.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Iowa, 1858, pp. 9-10.

<sup>2</sup>Iowa Acts, 1870, chap. 116, secs. 1 and 10.

<sup>3</sup>General Laws of Wisconsin, 1859, chap. 94, sec. 9.

<sup>4</sup>Governor's Message and Accompanying Documents of Wisconsin, 1864, p. 301.

<sup>5</sup>General Laws of Wisconsin, 1865, chap. 537.



Anson Smyth, state superintendent of public instruction in Ohio, suggested the use of high schools to augment the supply of qualified teachers in that state. He estimated that in 1860 the high schools had furnished 1,500 teachers or 7.5 per cent of the total number of teachers in the state; but the number was not commensurate, he thought, with the facilities of the high schools.

They are costing the people heavily; they are, chiefly under the charge of thorough and accomplished instructors; they are furnished with apparatus, libraries and other appliances; they are made up of pupils who have passed thorough examinations and they have the power to enforce rules in regard to study and deportment to a much greater extent than that possessed by most other schools of a similar grade. We have scores of High Schools which possess facilities for instructing and training pupils for the work of teaching which are superior to those furnished by institutions which claim to be of a higher grade. Most of the pupils in our High Schools have enjoyed opportunities for acquiring the art of teaching in our common schools, such as our Colleges and Female Seminaries seldom furnish. . . . But it must be acknowledged that, upon the whole, our High Schools have not yet contributed to the supply of teachers to an extent commensurate to their facilities.<sup>1</sup>

The reasons for the failure of high schools to meet their obligations with respect to the education of teachers could be attributed, the commissioner thought, to the fact that the schools were of recent origin and had not had the time to work out their purposes. Also, many high-school graduates were too young to assume the responsible duties of teachers. Reports of chief state school officers do not reveal that any professional courses were outlined. Subjects of the high-school curriculum, such as book-keeping, history, philosophy, rhetoric, chemistry, moral science, botany, geology, astronomy, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, music, Latin, Greek, and German did not constitute suitable preparation for teachers in the elementary schools. Prospective elementary teachers needed, rather, thorough grounding in the branches that

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<sup>1</sup>Executive Documents of the State of Ohio, 1860, Part II, pp. 158-59.

they ultimately would teach and in methods of instruction and discipline.

### The Private College

Private institutions in the Middle States operated for the most part independently. However slow the states were in assuming responsibility for setting up their own teacher-education agencies, they were not favorable--as their practices show--to the policy of supplying financial aid to private institutions. There was a marked exception in the case of Wisconsin which, for a period of eight years, furnished to private institutions funds for the education of teachers. The nature of the aid, the conditions under which it was distributed, and the general attitude toward the policy are considered in this section of the chapter.

The first constitution of Wisconsin, having described the various sources from which the school fund should be derived, required that the income from it should be applied to the support and maintenance of common schools in each school district, and the purchase of suitable libraries and apparatus.<sup>1</sup> Likewise the constitution required that the residue should be appropriated to the support and the maintenance of academies and normal schools.<sup>2</sup> The legislature, it seems, took no action before 1857 with respect to the administration of the school fund. In that year a law was enacted for the encouragement of academies and normal schools.<sup>3</sup> The provisions of the law are digested as follows:

1. One-fourth of the gross proceeds from the sale of swamp and overflowed lands, granted the state by an act of congress in 1850, was apportioned to normal institutes and academies.

<sup>1</sup>Constitution of Wisconsin, 1848, art. x, sec. 1.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., sec. 2.

<sup>3</sup>Wisconsin Acts, 1857, chap. 82.

2. A board of regents of normal schools was created to administer the provisions of the act.
3. The duty of the board of regents was to distribute funds to normal schools and academies and to other institutions in accordance with the provisions designated in the act.
4. Institutions receiving aid were required to report annually with respect to the age, the residence, and the studies of each pupil for whom they were entitled to receive a distributive share.
5. Every chartered college and university in the state offering the usual course of studies and having corporate property to the amount of fifty thousand dollars above encumbrances and every incorporated academy maintaining a normal institute for the education of teachers and having corporate property to the amount of five thousand dollars should receive distributive shares.
6. To colleges, universities (except the state university), and academies that were maintaining normal institutes distribution of the income should be made according to the number of pupils instructed for the time prescribed by the board of regents. No institution might receive more than three thousand dollars annually.
7. A sum not to exceed three thousand dollars annually was to be used for the support and maintenance of a normal school, whenever any town, city, or village in the state should give a site, suitable buildings, and fixtures without encumbrances for a state normal school, provided that the board of regents should consider the educational interests of the state to be advanced by so doing.
8. Any residue of the fund was to be apportioned incorporated colleges to the extent of twenty dollars for each female student enrolled and pursuing the course prescribed by the board of regents.

The law of 1857 was revised in 1859 so that every female college and seminary having corporate property to the amount of \$20,000 became eligible for a share of the income.<sup>1</sup> Every union or high school which was, according to the laws of the state, under control of any city, village, town, or district and which had established and was maintaining a normal department likewise became eligible for a share of the income, the ratio to be determined by the board of regents. The law authorized the board to employ agents to visit the normal departments and to exercise

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1859, chap. 94.

supervisory control of the various institutions. Also, the agents were to conduct county teachers' institutes and in other ways co-operate with the superintendent of public instruction. The law remained practically unchanged until its repeal in 1865.<sup>1</sup>

Prior to 1859, administration of the law was left largely to the good faith of the co-operating institutions.<sup>2</sup> Upon affidavit signed by the president and the secretary of the board of trustees, to the effect that the requirements of the law had been met, institutions might receive a portion of the income fund. That practice did not, however, enable the board of regents to ascertain the pecuniary conditions of the institutions. In order to secure complete information, the board formulated blanks and submitted them to the institutions applying for portions of the fund. Thus the board was able to secure information concerning both the financial standing and the academic standards, such as courses of study, teachers, salaries, and methods of discipline. The board employed Henry Barnard as its first agent.

The amount of the normal-school fund for 1857 was \$14,520 and for 1858, \$10,152. The amount for each pupil was \$30 for the first year, and \$18 for the second year. The decreased amount was caused in part by an increase in enrollment. It was reported, however, that in the latter year only three institutions received less than the amount paid for the employment of a teacher and all others received an amount sufficient to pay salaries to one or more teachers--salaries equivalent to those paid in the best institutions of learning. The board of regents summarized its own conclusions with respect to the fund and to the participating

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1865, chap. 537.

<sup>2</sup>Wisconsin Public Documents, 1858-59, pp. 7-40.

institutions:

These amounts, together with those received from the tuition of pupils, ought surely to be a sufficient inducement for the establishment of good Normal Classes, and it is not unreasonable, on the part of the State, to expect that the work for which the institutions are paid shall be fully and amply done. Nor should any institution lay claim to or expect to receive aid and encouragement from the State, until, on its own part, it is willing and able to do the State some service.<sup>1</sup>

The Board of Regents of Normal Schools presented to the governor of Wisconsin in 1863 the rules and regulations formulated for the information of institutions applying for a portion of the normal-school fund.<sup>2</sup> Standards were elevated and means were taken to check conformity to requirements. Participating institutions were required to present detailed reports concerning the status of the normal departments. The agent of the board was required to keep constant vigil as to whether or not standards were being met. Each student enrolled had to pass successfully a rigid examination before he could be eligible for a share of the fund.

In 1864 only eight institutions met the standards. The eight claimed a total enrollment of one hundred fifty-four students pursuing normal studies. Of that number, thirty-six successfully passed the examination and were allowed compensation. The number of students reported by classes was about the same as that previously reported, and the examination was of about the same difficulty; yet a smaller number of students successfully met the requirements of the board of regents.

The money distributed for the year at the rate of thirty dollars a pupil totalled \$1,000, a sum only slightly more than a third of the total amount (\$3,155.71) available for distribution. The remainder was used to defray the salaries and the traveling

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 11.

<sup>2</sup>Reports of the Officers of the State, 1863, pp. 306-12.



expenses of agents of the board, mainly in connection with teachers' institutes.

During the Civil War normal classes were depleted of both male students and male instructors. Places left vacant had to be filled by females, who in turn were compelled to leave school before they had completed the full course. That situation, together with the ever-increasing sentiment for more permanent investment of the money accruing to the normal-school fund, undoubtedly was in part responsible for a revision of the law and vital change in the teacher-education policy of the state.<sup>1</sup>

For a period of nearly ten years prior to the establishment of an institution for the education of teachers at Normal, Illinois, there was spirited agitation for securing qualified teachers. A considerable sum of money, known as the University and Seminary Funds, had been granted by the federal government for the creation of a university and seminary of learning.<sup>2</sup> The state had borrowed the funds at 6 per cent interest.<sup>3</sup> One group of agitators favored having the national government pay over the principal which the state would use to establish normal departments in the already-existent higher institutions of learning. The departments would then be financed by the interest from the fund--about \$10,000 annually.<sup>4</sup> As early as 1851 David L. Gregg, ex officio superintendent of common schools, in commenting upon the need for a more adequate supply of competent teachers, had suggested appropriating the proceeds from the college and seminary

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 300-301.

<sup>2</sup>Reports of the General Assembly of Illinois, 1859, II, 52.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 53.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

fund to the different colleges of the state on condition that they should establish departments for the education of teachers.<sup>1</sup> In that same year a bill was introduced into the legislature providing for the distribution of the income from the funds to private institutions for the education of teachers.<sup>2</sup> The following year, Professor John Evan submitted to the Industrial Convention at Springfield a plan for securing better-qualified teachers. His proposal was for the legislature to create a board of university regents which would supervise private colleges in their work relative to the preparation of teachers and to agriculture and industry.<sup>3</sup>

A still more vigorous effort to enact legislation by which institutions would share the annual interest of the college and seminary funds was made in 1853. Among other things, the bill provided for a course of instruction in the theory and practice of teaching.<sup>4</sup> Upon the establishment of a separate institution for the education of teachers, attempts to procure state aid for private institutions came to naught.

#### Summary

Immigrants, particularly from New England and New York, constituted in the main the first teachers in the Middle States with any semblance of professional preparation. Resentment against the teachers from the eastern states arose, partly because they held themselves aloof, maintaining often the missionary attitude. The Middle States did not long rely to any great extent

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<sup>1</sup> Report of the State Superintendent of Common Schools, 1851, pp. 13-14.

<sup>2</sup> Burt E. Powell, Semi-Centennial History of the University of Illinois, I, 732-33. Urbana: University of Illinois, 1918.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid., pp. 427-29.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid., pp. 535-36.

on other sections of the country for their supply of teachers.

Teachers' institutes, an innovation from the eastern states, found favor in the Middle States between 1846 and 1870. The institute was a ready and a comparatively inexpensive means by which teachers from an entire county could assemble at the county seat to receive instruction for a week or two in methods of teaching and discipline. The institute was in reality a temporary normal school, but it proved inadequate for providing the amount of professional education necessary for successful teaching.

The development of union or graded schools in centers of population gave temporary hope to many for a supply of better-educated teachers. In like manner, the high school--developed first as the upper division of the union or graded school--seemed to afford opportunity for increasing the supply of qualified teachers. However, neither the union or graded school nor the high school possessed the essential element of a teacher-educating institution. Both offered academic work in advance of that of the district school; neither offered professional courses. They did not prove either a popular means or an adequate means for supplying teachers for the district schools.

Although the Middle States were unable to provide an adequate supply of capable teachers for the public schools, they were as a rule not willing to furnish financial aid to either endowed or denominational colleges for that purpose. Wisconsin was the only state to experiment with the practice of remunerating private institutions for the education of teachers.

The various means described in this chapter for securing professionally educated teachers proved to be only temporary ways of meeting the urgent needs of the time.

## PART II

### NORMAL TRAINING DEPARTMENTS AND DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION IN STATE UNIVERSITIES

Consideration has already been given to a recognition of the need for professionally educated teachers in the Middle States and to the sources for securing them. As those sources did not supply an adequate number of professionally educated teachers, many educators looked with favor upon state universities--then in the process of development--as logical agencies for providing teachers for the common schools. Five state universities made provision for normal departments, and the University of Michigan established branches to prepare students for the university and to educate teachers for the common schools. Before the University of Illinois was established in 1867 and the Ohio State University in 1870, the normal-department movement had mainly spent itself. When the normal departments failed to meet the expectations of educators, they were either abolished outright or transformed into departments of pedagogy, known later as departments of education. The change was effected chiefly to eliminate from the university students of low-grade scholarship and to allow the university to turn its attention to the preparation of high-school teachers. Part II of this study deals with the development and the failure of normal departments and with the development of departments of education. Facts are presented in three chapters, entitled, respectively: Establishment and Operation of Normal Departments in State Universities; Factors Underlying the Failure of Normal Departments in State Universities; and Departments of

Education in State Universities.



## CHAPTER IV

### ESTABLISHMENT AND OPERATION OF NORMAL DEPARTMENTS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES

Normal departments in state universities for a time gave promise of supplying a relatively large number of professionally educated teachers for the common schools. This chapter presents the history of the establishment and the operation of normal departments in the state universities of Michigan, Indiana, Iowa, Wisconsin, Missouri, and Minnesota.

#### University of Michigan

In 1837 branches of the University of Michigan were authorized for various centers, and the regents enacted laws to govern them.<sup>1</sup> The regents authorized also a course of study for the education of teachers, comprising a three-year program made up of subjects in the field of English literature, mathematics, physics, and intellectual, political, and moral science.<sup>2</sup> The function of the branches was twofold: to prepare students for the university, and to educate teachers for the common schools. In his report for 1837 the superintendent of public instruction referred to the branches as the connecting link between the primary schools and the university.<sup>3</sup> He believed that the branches should supply the schools with competent teachers. Accordingly, he rec-

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<sup>1</sup>University of Michigan Regents' Proceedings, 1837-1864, pp.12, 28, and 29. Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, 1915.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 28-29.

<sup>3</sup>Documents of the Journal of the Senate of the State of Michigan, 1838, p. 40.

commended that 10 per cent of the school fund be apportioned to aid in their support. In his next annual report he referred again to the necessity for ample financial aid to the branches and suggested that the salt-spring lands be devoted to their support.<sup>1</sup>

Four branches of the university had been opened in 1838.<sup>2</sup> These were maintained until about 1850 when the legality of using university funds for their support was questioned.<sup>3</sup> In 1845 special investigation was made by the superintendent to determine the effectiveness of the branches in preparing teachers for the common schools.<sup>4</sup> His inquiry revealed that approximately a third of the enrollment consisted of women. Since females were not admitted to the university proper until after the branches had been abolished, undoubtedly many of them became teachers. However, none of the branches reported a special department for the education of teachers. The number of teachers although not reported definitely, seems not to have exceeded thirty or forty annually. The superintendent concluded: "There are then but few teachers qualified in all the branches; not half enough to supply the schools of one county."<sup>5</sup>

#### Indiana University

As early as 1848 the board of trustees of the Indiana University in its report to the legislature referred to the university grammar school as serving the dual purpose of a normal

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 231.

<sup>2</sup>University of Michigan Regents' Proceedings, 1837-1864, p. 59.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 443.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., pp. 103, 192, 246, 304, and 346.

<sup>5</sup>Joint Documents of the Senate and House of Representatives, 1846, p. 20.

school and a preparatory department for the university with full instruction offered in English grammar, geography, and arithmetic, but no professional instruction.<sup>1</sup> The grammar school was attended by teachers and prospective teachers who declared their preparation in the department to be superior to that obtained in any other school they had previously attended. The faculty of the university nevertheless recognized the need of professional work for the education of teachers; hence, in accordance with their wishes a committee of the board of trustees recommended to the general assembly the enactment of a law empowering the board to establish a normal department in the university. In June, 1852, the assembly legalized the establishment of the department for instruction in the theory and practice of teaching, the department to be open without charge to male and female residents desiring to qualify as teachers of the common schools within the state.<sup>2</sup>

The character of the department established in the University is described in the annual report of the board of trustees for the year 1853.

In pursuance of a resolution of the Board, Professor Daniel Read, was appointed by the Faculty and resident Trustee, to give lectures on Didactics in the Normal Department. The number of the class attending these lectures during the late term, was thirty-four, of whom twenty-two were males, and twelve females. The course of lectures on Didactics, and the principal subjects of study in this school, will hereafter be attended to, during the summer term; this arrangement being thought more convenient to persons now engaged as teachers in the State, or designing to become so engaged. A course of weekly lectures, however, will be continued through the present term in this department.

The following course of studies has been prescribed for the Normal School, viz:

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<sup>1</sup>General Assembly of Indiana Documents, 1848, Part II, p. 279.

<sup>2</sup>Acts of the General Assembly of Indiana, 1852, chap. 114, sec. 25.

Reading, elocution, writing, linear drawing, mental and written arithmetic, book keeping, geography, with outline maps and the use of the globes, English grammar, and composition, algebra, geometry, mensuration, surveying, natural philosophy, chemistry, human physiology, history--United States and general--history of English literature, vocal music, Didactics. Those who complete the foregoing course, and pass a creditable examination thereon, will be entitled to a certificate, or diploma, signed by the Faculty.

Auxiliary to the Normal Department, the Board of Trustees have fitted up rooms in one of the buildings on the college campus, for a boys' model school, which they have placed under the immediate instruction of Mr. John O. Smith, a graduate of the University in the class of 1851, and who, by a personal inspection of the most popular schools of this character in the eastern States, had made himself well acquainted with the most approved modes of conducting them.

The Board have affected an arrangement with the accomplished principal (Mrs. E. J. Mcpherson) of the Monroe county female seminary, by which this seminary is placed under the direction of the resident Trustees, and the Faculty of the University, as the female department of the Normal School. This arrangement most happily secures for this department the advantages of an admirable female model school, and the services of a lady possessing great capacity and tact as an instructor of youth. The Board trust the General Assembly of the State will grant some additional pecuniary aid, to meet the increased expenditure necessarily incurred, and to enable them to extend the department now established, as to furnish the most ample provision for the thorough training of the increasing numbers which our State School system will, every year, invite into the profession of teaching.<sup>1</sup>

The normal department from the outset met serious obstacles. The model school for boys was difficult to manage. Insufficient funds made it impossible to secure and retain competent teachers. The arrangement with the Monroe County female seminary was never put into effect. In 1856 Daniel Read resigned his professorship to accept a position in the University of Wisconsin, and in 1857 the model school was discontinued. After the first year the work in didactics was restricted to the summer sessions.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Documents of the General Assembly of Indiana, 1853, Doc. 12, pp. 315-16.

<sup>2</sup>Theophilus A. Wylie, Indiana University, Its History from 1820 to 1890, pp. 60-61. Indianapolis, Indiana: William B. Burford, Lithographer, Printer, and Binder.

The department was reorganized in 1864 under direction of E. D. Hunter, superintendent of the graded schools of Bloomington. According to the catalogue description, at the beginning of each of the three terms there would be formed a class designed for students of both sexes who desired to prepare for teaching.<sup>1</sup> No course of study is described. It is probable that students took their elementary work in the preparatory department and that Mr. Hunter offered the professional work consisting of lectures in methods of teaching. How long the work of the department was under Mr. Hunter's direction is not clear, probably for only a year or two.

Instruction in the department consisted chiefly of drill in the methods of teaching the common branches. During the last term of the course, lectures were given on principles of education, organization and management, and the school system of the state of Indiana.<sup>2</sup> The enrollment in the department for 1868-69<sup>3</sup> was given as forty and for 1869-70,<sup>4</sup> as twenty-three. During its final existence the normal department was under the direction of George W. Hoss, A.M., Professor of English Literature and of the Theory and Practice of Teaching.<sup>5</sup>

#### University of Iowa

Legislation that provided for the establishment of the University of Iowa provided also for the inauguration of a normal department whenever the superintendent of public instruction should deem such a department necessary for the preparation of teachers

<sup>1</sup>Annual Report of Indiana University (Catalogue), 1864-65, p. 23.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1868-69, p. 27.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 17.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1869-70, p. 18.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1871-72, p. 8.



for the common schools.<sup>1</sup> The first circular of the university, published three weeks prior to the opening of the institution the latter part of September, 1855, listed John Vanvalkenburg in charge of the normal department. The circular for the following year listed Franklin Wells as principal of the normal department and stated that the elementary branches of common education and the most approved methods and processes of teaching were taught in the normal department connected with the university.<sup>2</sup> The catalogue for the year 1856-57 described in much detail the normal department and listed the attendance as fifteen males and twenty-five females.<sup>3</sup>

The education of teachers for the common schools was stated in 1856-57 to be a function of the normal department.<sup>4</sup> The course of study included the common and higher English branches, designed to provide for a liberal education; lectures in the science of education and the art of teaching, with special consideration to the best methods of organizing, disciplining, and instructing children and securing the co-operation of parents; and practice in the model school. The studies were so arranged that the course might be completed in two years. Upon their completion of the prescribed course and upon evidence of their sound and accurate scholarship, students were awarded diplomas.

In 1860 certain additional requirements were listed for the department. Reading and penmanship had been added to the list of subjects in which candidates must take entrance examinations. An age limit of fifteen years for females and seventeen years for

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<sup>1</sup>First Circular of the State University of Iowa, 1855, p.4.

<sup>2</sup>Circular of the State University of Iowa, 1856, p. 14.

<sup>3</sup>Catalogue of the State University of Iowa, 1856-57, pp.  
12-14.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

males had been established. Before they were admitted to the normal department, students had to declare by a signed statement their intention to teach in the state of Iowa. Students receiving appointments by county superintendents, county judges, or clerks of district courts were admitted free. Others were received upon payment of a tuition fee of five dollars a term. Each student in order to graduate must have taught in the model school from two to four weeks under supervision of the principal. The purpose of directed teaching was to reduce theory to practice. The course of study had been extended from two to three years with the major portion of the professional work offered in the third year.<sup>1</sup>

Within the next four years no fundamental changes took place in the department except that the course of study was reduced from three to two years. The reduction was effected by placing the more elementary studies in the preparatory department newly established in the university.<sup>2</sup> Within the succeeding five years fundamental changes were made. The catalogue for 1869-70 states that the normal department then ranked as a professional department of the university.<sup>3</sup> The course of study was almost entirely professional and was so arranged that it might be completed in a year. There were announced for students who had completed a collegiate or an academic course, advanced normal subjects embracing lectures and readings in systems of education in both the ancient world and in Europe and a professional study of history, mathematics, botany, and physiology. Having fulfilled the requirements of the prescribed course, students were entitled to a state certificate and to the degree of Bachelor of Didactics. A short

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1860-61, pp. 14-16.      <sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 22-24.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1869-70, pp. 47-50.

course of eleven weeks' duration was designed to benefit students unable to prepare themselves fully for teaching. The course consisted mainly of drill in the common English branches and was repeated from term to term as circumstances required.

In his report to the board of regents in 1873, the president of the university stated: "Classes for the training of teachers in the common English branches have been discontinued, and the only facilities now furnished to those desiring to teach in the common or district schools are those of the Academical Department."<sup>1</sup> The attitude of the administration with respect to the function of the university in the preparation of teachers is presented in the following paragraph:

It will be seen that the Normal and Academical Departments have in the main coalesced. The reasons are obvious: Didactics, in the higher sense, is a liberal study. It includes the philosophy of mind, the laws of mental development, and all those branches of study and methods of instruction that are employed in general education. Besides, the course of study and methods of teaching in the Academical Department are such as would be selected if that department were organized and carried forward for the sole purpose of educating teachers for advanced schools. Such teachers need primarily, accurate scholarship united with liberal culture. The instruction given in language, science, mathematics, and literature meets this demand.<sup>2</sup>

The education of teachers was not discontinued. The university had relinquished its efforts to educate teachers for the elementary schools, but Stephen N. Fellows remained in the university to occupy the Chair of Didactics and to offer professional courses for students who desired to become high-school teachers.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Legislative Documents, 1874, I, 32-34.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>University of Iowa Extension Bulletin No. 133 (October 1, 1925), College of Education Series No. 13, p. 14. Forest C. Ensign, "Fifty Years of Education in the University of Iowa."

## University of Wisconsin

Within a year after the adoption of the constitution--which provided for the establishment of a state university--the legislature of Wisconsin enacted laws for the government of the university and legally designated four departments for the university, one a department of the theory and the practice of teaching.<sup>1</sup> In 1849 Chancellor Lathrop transmitted to the superintendent of public instruction a copy of the ordinance of the board of regents, stipulating the organization of a normal department and providing for a normal professor to offer instruction in the art of teaching and in those subjects best suited to prepare students for teaching.<sup>2</sup> The ordinance designated a yearly session of at least five months and admitted to the advantages of the department young men who desired to teach in the academies and in the common schools within the limits of the state. Members of the teachers' class were entitled to the privileges of the university including free access to the library and to the lectures of professors in other departments of the university. Also students were admitted to the normal department without extra charge, provided that they should sign an agreement to teach for two of four years immediately following their enrollment in the university. Those completing the course successfully, as evidenced by an examination, were entitled to take part in the commencement exercises and to receive an appropriate degree.

State Superintendent Root entertained high hopes for the department as a means of supplying educated teachers for the com-

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<sup>1</sup>Rev. Sts. of the State of Wisconsin, 1849, chap. 18, sec. 9.

<sup>2</sup>First Annual Report of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1849, pp. 121-23.

mon schools. He believed that the department as soon as organized would be crowded with pupils eager for the preparation gratuitously provided. He had been informed by the chancellor that arrangements would be made for the establishment of a model school and for the instruction of females who might desire to teach.<sup>1</sup> But the state did not immediately derive benefit from the department. It was not until 1855 that an appointment was made to the chair of the theory and art of teaching, and then the position was shared with another in the college of science, literature, and arts.<sup>2</sup> Daniel Read, the head of the department of the theory and art of teaching, announced a course in the art of teaching to begin on the third Wednesday of May, 1856, and to continue the remaining ten weeks of the summer term.<sup>3</sup> The catalogue for 1856 outlined the subjects of instruction for the department of didactics as follows:

Education, what is it? physical education; intellectual education; aesthetical education; an examination of the powers of the mind as to communicating and receiving knowledge; who do the work of education, the office of the teacher, and the importance of making teaching a distinct profession; the school house and its proper furniture and appointments; school policy and discipline; incentives to study; mode of hearing recitations; punishments; premiums; graded schools; school libraries; proper methods of teaching different subjects; what can the state do; school laws of Wisconsin, etc.<sup>4</sup>

In his communication to the board of university regents under date of January 27, 1858, Chancellor Lathrop outlined the needs of the state for a unified program of teacher education. He felt that the work of the normal department in the university and the teacher-education work conducted under jurisdiction of the board of regents of normal schools should be co-ordinated in order

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 126.

<sup>2</sup>Assembly Journal, 1856, Appendix A, pp. 19-20.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., Appendix B, p. 51.

<sup>4</sup>Governor's Messages and Accompanying Documents, 1857, I,



to bring about a complete normal system. To effect the necessary changes in educational policy, he was instrumental in inducing Henry Barnard to become chancellor of the university, a position he himself had relinquished in order to make possible the adjustment of the entire educational program of the state. In addition to chancellor, Barnard was made head of the normal department in the university and agent for the board of regents of normal schools. In those capacities he was the most influential character for determining the teacher-education policy of the state.<sup>1</sup>

In the university catalogue for 1858 Professor Daniel Read announced the intention of the board of regents to make the education of teachers an important part of the work of the university. "To this end," he said, "the Honorable Henry Barnard, Chancellor-elect of the university . . . is to render service as a Professor in this School, with such aid from other instructors as may be necessary to carry out a complete plan of Normal Instruction."<sup>2</sup>

Because of its bearing on the general history of normal departments in state universities, Barnard's attitude to the normal department is quoted.

I wish to take then necessary preliminary steps to develop the Normal Department of the University, and to bring it into close and immediate connection with the State system of Normal instruction. This, in my judgment, can best be done, so far as their studies are identical, and so far as professional instruction in classification, teaching and discipline of the district, village and city schools are concerned, by uniting the Normal pupils of the University, with the Normal class of the Public High School of Madison; and at the same time affording them opportunities of residence, class instruction and lectures, in other studies at the University.<sup>3</sup>

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28. <sup>1</sup>Wisconsin Public Documents, 1857-58, Appendix A, pp. 26-

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., Appendix E, p. 75.

<sup>3</sup>Wisconsin Public Documents, 1858-59, Appendix A, pp. 9-10.

The university catalogue of 1859 announced that the chancellor would offer instruction in history and principles of education and in the classification, teaching, and discipline of schools. Instruction in the normal course would begin April 10, 1860.<sup>1</sup> Barnard relinquished his services in Wisconsin in 1861, ostensibly on account of ill health. The work of the normal department suffered total collapse during the next two years.

The department was reopened in 1863 with Professor C. H. Allen, formerly general agent for the normal school board of regents, as its head. Young ladies had then become members of the department.<sup>2</sup> The course of study was three years in length and was designed especially for those wishing to teach in the public schools. Instruction was offered by the principal of the department, by the preceptress, and by a female assistant. Students had access to special courses organized and taught by college professors. Without extra charge, they were admitted to the lectures and recitations in both the college and the preparatory departments.<sup>3</sup>

In 1866 J. C. Pickard, new head of the normal department, reported an enrollment of one hundred twenty-eight students with six in the senior class, thirty-two in the middle class, forty-two in the junior class, and forty-eight in the preparatory department. That number comprised female students only, though males received instruction in the department. The professional work, reduced to a minimum, consisted of lectures in the theory and art of teaching. With one exception the course of study comprised the usual liberal-arts subjects. There was evidence that the primary

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., Appendix G, p. 75.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1863, p. 312.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1864, pp. 977-78.

aim of the normal department was no longer the education of teachers. Professor Pickard stated that "any who desire to pursue the higher English branches, or selected studies, will be admitted to any of the classes for which they may be prepared."<sup>1</sup> The regents' report for 1868 confirmed the statement that the normal department was undergoing fundamental transitions. In that year the department changed its status completely by becoming a female college within the university.<sup>2</sup>

#### University of Missouri

In 1846 a senate committee, appointed to visit the University of Missouri, recommended that the legislature require the board of curators to establish a professorship in the theory and practice of teaching. The nature of the plan suggested by the committee is briefly outlined. The university was to prepare annually through its department of theory and practice sixty-six young men who, upon completion of the prescribed two-year course, would return to their native districts to teach. Their education would be free, provided that they should pledge themselves to teach for a specified term. By the plan the committee believed that many young men, promising but without financial means to attend the university, would acquire a liberal education and become useful to their communities as common-school teachers.<sup>3</sup>

In accordance with this recommendation, the committee on education reported favorably a bill for the creation of a normal department in the university. They recommended that the normal instructor be superintendent of public instruction. They recom-

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609. <sup>1</sup>Governor's Messages and Accompanying Documents, 1867, p.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1868, p. 245.

<sup>3</sup>Journal of the Senate, 1846, Appendix, pp. 204-205.

mended also that the legislature appropriate a thousand dollars yearly until the annual income from the seminary fund should become sufficient to sustain the normal professorship. The committee in advancing arguments in favor of the recommendations pointed out that by the plan there would be vast savings over that of establishing normal schools, such as those existing in the East.<sup>1</sup>

A committee of the board of curators strengthened the recommendations of the visiting committee and of the committee on education; they presented to the legislature a memorial praying for the establishment of a normal department in the university. The memorialists reviewed with profundity the need for well-prepared teachers and the financial economy of providing for them through a normal department in the university rather than by the establishment of separate normal schools. The memorialists stated that every valuable result of the normal school could be secured, with a saving of the entire original outlay, and a larger part of the annual expenditure, by the adoption of the plan which they had the honor to present to the General Assembly.<sup>2</sup>

The legislature, acceding to the various entreaties, enacted permissive legislation to the effect that the board of curators might create a normal professorship in the university whenever they should consider that action expedient.<sup>3</sup> At that critical period in the establishment of a normal department in the university, there was a decided change in the attitude of the board of curators. Familiarity with conditions at the time leads one to suspect that the resignation of President Lathrop in 1849 was the occasion for the change in attitude. His activities as president,

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 236-39.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 208-13.

<sup>3</sup>Laws of the State of Missouri, 1848-49, pp. 130-31.

as well as his subsequent activities as chancellor of the University of Wisconsin, evidence his interest in the education of teachers through a normal department in the university. However much or little the resignation of President Lathrop affected the attitude of the curators, they gave as reasons for their failure to establish a normal department the financial condition of the institution, the neglect of county courts to appoint students in accordance with the provision of the act, and the ordinance of the university which permitted all indigent young men of good moral character, of respectable talent, and not under fourteen years of age, to enter the university upon payment of the contingent fee of one dollar.<sup>1</sup>

Until the adoption of the new constitution in 1865, only sporadic interest was manifested in the establishment of a normal department, though such a department was once actually established as the following quotation shows:

The course of studies in the University is so arranged as to permit those who wish to qualify themselves for school teaching, to have every opportunity to do so. In each Department the instruction is intended to be Normal; in addition to which, lectures are delivered by the Normal Professor on the various subjects which demand the special attention of the professional teacher. Thus it will be seen that the University affords all such facilities for studying the theory and practice of teaching as are afforded by the best Normal Schools.<sup>2</sup>

According to the catalogue announcement, the normal department was headed by Professor Price. The activities of the department were of short duration. The oncoming struggle of the Civil War detracted from academic interest and threw both the public schools and the university into a state of paralysis. In the

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<sup>1</sup>Journal of the House of Representatives, 1851, Appendix, pp. 118-19.

<sup>2</sup>Thirty-sixth Annual Catalogue, 1877-78, p. 75. Quoted from Seventeenth Annual Catalogue, 1859, p. 27.



early period of the War, the work of the institution was suspended and the buildings were occupied by Union troops.<sup>1</sup> The functioning of the normal department during the first period was undoubtedly limited to a span of not more than two or three years.

The new constitution of 1865 provided that "the general assembly shall establish and maintain a state university, with departments for instruction in teaching, in agriculture, and in natural science, as soon as the public-school fund will permit."<sup>2</sup>

President Daniel Read, who had formerly been connected with both the University of Indiana and the University of Wisconsin, was particularly solicitous with respect to the department of normal instruction. He said:

I have felt much solicitude in regard to this department of the University, because through it the University is brought into full sympathy with the general school system of the State, and because also frequent attempts to establish such departments in connection with colleges have proved failures. I ought rather to say, that mere normal professorships, so called, established in our colleges or universities, have in no instance met the public demand in this direction; nor have such foundations been recognized as normal schools by the well-informed educators of the country. Such a department, if proper to call it such, has existed in this University. The plan as now proposed is very different, and contemplates a distinct professional department, and is intended to embrace the model and training schools, and to be in all respects conducted upon the model of the best institutions of the kind in the country. The leading and most experienced men in this department of educational effort see no objection to this plan, but say that they see great advantages to be derived in point of economy and enlarged facilities, by placing the college of instruction for teachers, as part of a university system side by side with other professional schools.<sup>3</sup>

The College of Normal Instruction was opened in September, 1867, under the principalship of E. L. Ripley, late of the Michigan State Normal School, who outlined the character of the college

<sup>1</sup>Report of the Board of Curators of the State University, 1871, p. 4.

<sup>2</sup>The Constitution of Missouri, 1865, art. ix, sec. 4.

<sup>3</sup>House and Senate Journals, 1868, Appendix, p. 279.

of normal instruction as follows:

The college embraces three departments: the normal school, the preparatory school, and the model school. The normal school is strictly professional in its character, and admits such pupils only as intend to devote themselves to the business of teaching in the public schools of the State. The preparatory school is, as its name imports, designed to prepare pupils for admission to any of the colleges of the University. The model school is intended to furnish both a specimen or a model of a perfectly graded public school and a school of practice for the pupils of the normal school.<sup>1</sup>

The general outline of the course of studies pursued in the normal school includes: the philosophy of education; organization, classification, and government of schools; and school systems and school legislation.

A committee consisting of five members of the board of curators, on December 20, 1870, presented an elaborate report concerning the reorganization and the enlargement of the university. One section of the report recommended certain modifications significant in the evolution of normal departments in universities. The recommendations were occasioned in part by the fact that the state had established independent normal schools and in part by the fact that the committee desired to make the department conform to the general plan of the institution. The committee recommended: (1) that all academic subjects be taught in the departments where they belong with special attention given to appropriate methods; (2) that the normal and preparatory departments be separated, and that the preparatory department be administered in such a way that it would exhibit daily the best methods of conducting a high school; (3) that students having pursued a somewhat liberal course be admitted to the degree of Normal Graduate; and (4) that the model school be dropped as an organization.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 297-98.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Committee on the Reorganization and Enlargement of the University of the State of Missouri, pp. 33-35. St. Louis: R. P. Studley and Co., 1871.

The recommendations of the committee strike a discordant note in the president's recommendations of three years previously when he reported his policies with respect to the education of teachers. At that time he proposed a distinct professional department embracing a model school conducted upon the pattern of the best institutions of the kind in the country. A normal professorship already tried out in various universities, he asserted, had not succeeded in meeting the public demand for the education of teachers. Now three years later, the committee of which he was chairman, was advocating the abandonment of the model school and the relegation of the college of normal instruction to a department with a professor of the theory and practice of teaching. Had sufficient educational development taken place within the three years to justify the changed attitude? The committee thought so.<sup>1</sup> Within the period of three years the state had embarked upon a program of establishing separate normal schools. It is true that the state expected those institutions to furnish the bulk of the teachers for the common schools. Other factors operating within the institution affected the recommendations. There was a demand for the College of Normal Instruction to confine itself to the professional aspects of the subjects and to let those especially qualified deal with the academic aspects. There was also a demand for students to meet the scholarship level of students enrolled in the other departments of the university. Those who failed to meet the requirements should identify themselves with the preparatory department. Demands for conformity were to be accompanied by rewards similar to those of other departments. A degree of Normal Graduate was to be conferred upon students completing the requirements. The University of Missouri did not adopt

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 35.

the recommendations of the committee.

In the University Catalogue for 1874 two courses of study were announced for the College of Normal Instruction. The one embraced a full academic or college course requiring the same attainments as those demanded in the nonprofessional departments and qualifying students for positions in high schools and academies. The other embraced a two-year course qualifying teachers for their duties in the elementary schools. In the College of Normal Instruction there was outlined also a special course conducted for the convenience of those who could remain for only a portion of the year.<sup>1</sup> The University of Missouri was not able immediately to lift the department for the preparation of teachers from the academic level of elementary standards to those demanded by other departments. Rigid adherence to the recommendations of the committee in 1870 would have meant either the abandonment of the normal department--a direct violation of the constitution under which the university was operating--or its reduction to such insignificance that continued support would not have been warranted.

#### University of Minnesota

In Minnesota the territorial act of 1851, which provided for the establishment of the university, provided that one department should be designated: "The department of the theory and practice of elementary instruction."<sup>2</sup> Soon after Minnesota became a state in 1858, the legislature passed an act reaffirming the action of the territorial government with respect to a department for the education of teachers. As that department was the only one specifically mentioned in addition to the collegiate depart-

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Curators to the Governor, 1874, pp. 53-54.

<sup>2</sup>Minnesota Rev. St., 1851, chap. 28, sec. 10.

ment, the wording of the act is significant:

There shall also be a department for the training of teachers for the common schools of the State, in which shall be taught the theory and practice of teaching, and everything that will tend to perfect the elementary and other public schools of the State.<sup>1</sup>

An act of 1872 amending the session laws of 1868 again designated the department of elementary instruction as one of the five or more colleges or departments.<sup>2</sup> The department of elementary instruction, however, was to be discontinued whenever the board of regents should consider its discontinuance just and proper. In the following year, the code included a similar statement regarding the department of elementary instruction.<sup>3</sup>

In spite of the legislation making provision for the establishment of a separate department for the education of teachers for the common schools, the university did not open a normal department during its early history. In 1867 the legislature appropriated money to be used in part to open the grammar and normal department.<sup>4</sup> William Watts Folwell, first president of the university, is author of the statement that in 1868 "the department of elementary instruction had already been organized in the 'preparatory department.'"<sup>5</sup> Organization of a separate department for the education of teachers was probably forestalled by the opening of three state normal schools. In view of the availa-

<sup>1</sup>General Laws of the State of Minnesota, 1859-60, chap. 80, sec. 3.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1872, chap. 10, sec. 1.

<sup>3</sup>The Sts. at Large of the State of Minnesota, chap. 15, title 1, sec. 3.

<sup>4</sup>Acts of the Legislature of the State of Minnesota, 1867, chap. 8, sec. 1.

<sup>5</sup>William Watts Folwell, A History of Minnesota, IV, 61. St. Paul, Minnesota: Minnesota Historical Society, 1930.



bility of those agencies, organization of a separate department would have been an unnecessary expense both to the university and to the state.

### Summary

For varying periods of time the state universities of Indiana, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Missouri maintained normal departments for the education of elementary teachers. In addition, the University of Michigan utilized its branches for the education of elementary teachers. The University of Minnesota made provision for a normal department which apparently was operated only through the preparatory department, if at all. Normal departments were never established in the University of Illinois and the Ohio State University since those schools were not established until 1867 and 1870, respectively, after normal departments had almost run their course.

With the exception of the branches of the University of Michigan the establishment of normal departments extended over a relatively short period of time, from 1852 to 1868. If a normal department was in operation in the University of Missouri in 1859, as evidence seems to indicate, the establishment extended over a period of only nine years instead of sixteen. The Indiana University was the first to establish a normal department and the University of Missouri was the last. The departments in the Indiana University and in the University of Wisconsin were short-lived. On the other hand, the normal departments in the University of Iowa and in the University of Missouri were never abolished, but became departments of education. Aggressiveness depended upon the attitude of the men in charge. John H. Lathrop and Daniel Read gave hearty support to normal departments in the state uni-

versities of Indiana, Wisconsin, and Missouri.

Normal departments were designed to prepare teachers for the elementary schools. Their function determined the type of students attracted and the type of educational program set up. The student body consisted of members of both sexes whose academic preparation was below that of other students in the University. Work consisted chiefly of academic courses--mainly of the review type--and of a few hours of professional work. Some practice teaching was given through model schools operated in connection with the normal departments.

## CHAPTER V

### FACTORS UNDERLYING THE FAILURE OF NORMAL DEPARTMENTS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES

Normal departments in state universities did not prove successful in qualifying teachers for the common schools. As a result of their failure they either suffered total extinction or underwent a transition in both purpose and scope. This chapter deals with (1) the inability of normal departments to furnish an adequate number of teachers for the common schools; (2) the prejudiced attitude of university authorities toward normal departments; and (3) the partiality of educational leaders toward normal schools.

#### Inability of Normal Departments to Supply an Adequate Number of Teachers

From the reports of chief state school officers data have been obtained relative to the number of teachers employed in the eight Middle States for each of four years--1855, 1860, 1865, and 1870. The data show not only the total number of teachers necessary in each state for each year designated, but also the increased need from one designated year to the next. The data are presented in Table 2. In order to make more obvious the increase in the number of teachers required in the eight states, Table 3 was constructed from the data of Table 2. The data show the total increase for each state over three five-year periods--1855 to 1860, 1860 to 1865, and 1865 to 1870. The table presents also the average increase for each of the five-year periods and for the fifteen years from 1855 to 1870. For example, Illinois employed 8,372 more teachers in 1860 than in 1855; 2,353 more teachers in 1865

than in 1860; and 3,030 more teachers in 1870 than in 1865.

TABLE 2

THE NUMBER OF TEACHERS EMPLOYED IN THE PUBLIC  
SCHOOLS FOR EACH OF FOUR YEARS<sup>a</sup>

| State     | 1855   | 1860   | 1865   | 1870   |
|-----------|--------|--------|--------|--------|
| Illinois  | 6,326  | 14,708 | 17,015 | 20,081 |
| Indiana   | 3,098  | 6,653  | 9,313  | 11,826 |
| Iowa      | .....  | 6,374  | 8,820  | 12,715 |
| Michigan  | 5,076  | 7,943  | 8,744  | 11,014 |
| Minnesota | .....  | .....  | 2,003  | 4,111  |
| Missouri  | 2,307  | 5,670  | .....  | 7,881  |
| Ohio      | 20,852 | 19,931 | 19,882 | 21,366 |
| Wisconsin | .....  | 6,000  | 7,532  | 9,304  |

<sup>a</sup>Data were obtained from reports of chief state school officers.

TABLE 3

THE NUMBER OF NEW TEACHERS REQUIRED<sup>a</sup>

| State     | Total Increase     |                    |                    | Average Annual Increase |                    |                    |                    |
|-----------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
|           | 1855<br>to<br>1860 | 1860<br>to<br>1865 | 1865<br>to<br>1870 | 1855<br>to<br>1860      | 1860<br>to<br>1865 | 1865<br>to<br>1870 | 1855<br>to<br>1870 |
| Illinois  | 8372               | 2353               | 3030               | 1671                    | 471                | 606                | 917                |
| Indiana   | 3555               | 2660               | 2513               | 711                     | 453                | 503                | 582                |
| Iowa      | .....              | 2446               | 3894               | .....                   | 489                | 779                | 634                |
| Michigan  | 2867               | 801                | 2270               | 571                     | 161                | 454                | 396                |
| Minnesota | .....              | .....              | 2108               | .....                   | .....              | 422                | .....              |
| Missouri  | 3367               | .....              | .....              | 673                     | .....              | .....              | 372                |
| Ohio      | - 921              | - 49               | 1484               | - 184                   | - 10               | 297                | 34                 |
| Wisconsin | .....              | 1532               | 1772               | .....                   | 306                | 354                | 330                |

<sup>a</sup>Data were obtained from Table 2.

Illinois needed, on the average, 1,671 additional teachers each year from 1855 to 1860; 471, from 1860 to 1865; and 606, from 1865 to 1870. From 1855 to 1870 Illinois needed, on the average, 917 additional teachers for each successive year. For the same period

Indiana needed yearly an average of 582 additional teachers. From 1855 to 1870 Iowa needed an increase of 634 teachers each year; Michigan needed an increase of 396 teachers each year for the entire period, and so on.

It is to be noted that the average number of additional teachers in Ohio was very small, with an actual decrease in each of the first and second five-year periods. The cause of the decrease is not known.

In addition to the need for teachers, created by the rapid increase in population and the subsequent educational expansion, another need grew out of the permanent withdrawals from the profession. How great the teacher-turnover was can not be determined. It was undoubtedly an important factor in the need for new teachers, especially in the more populous states of Ohio and Illinois, though perhaps relatively no greater there than in the other states.

It is not possible to secure an accurate record of the number of teachers educated in normal departments, but a fairly accurate estimate can be derived from examination of the enrollment records found in official reports and catalogues. In 1866 the board of regents of the State of Iowa reported seventy-seven students enrolled in the normal department.<sup>1</sup> At no previous time had the department experienced a larger enrollment of advanced students, in spite of the fact that by a new plan of organization elementary pupils formerly classified in the normal department were then listed in the preparatory department. The enrollment for each of the academic years of 1863-64 and 1864-65, including pupils of elementary standing, was 233 and 253, respectively. During the academic years of 1868-69 and 1869-70 the normal de-

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<sup>1</sup>Iowa Legislative Documents, 1866, Appendix, p. 7.



partment of the Indiana University enrolled forty and twenty-three students, respectively.<sup>1</sup>

J. C. Pickard, head of the normal department in the University of Wisconsin, reported to the state superintendent in 1866 a total enrollment in his department of one hundred twenty-eight.<sup>2</sup> Of that number only six were in the senior class. The total did not include the number of male students who had received their instruction in the normal department. Even if they had been included, the number of teachers turned annually into the profession through the normal department would have been entirely inadequate.

A quotation from the catalogue of the University of Missouri will present the quantitative effectiveness of the College of Normal Instruction in its education of teachers: "Six classes numbering, in the aggregate, 36 have been graduated; while not less than 400 have received instruction in the theory and practice of teaching."<sup>3</sup>

Normal departments proved entirely inadequate to educate as many teachers as were needed to fill the new positions. A relatively large number of teachers were needed to replace those who had permanently withdrawn from the profession. When school officials had seen the discrepancy between the supply and the demand, they gradually lost faith in the adequacy of the normal departments. As their faith waned, they turned their attention and their support to other agencies for the preparation of teachers. Evidence of the change in attitude will be presented in a subsequent section of this chapter.

<sup>1</sup>Wylie, op. cit., pp. 27-28.

<sup>2</sup>Wisconsin Legislative Documents, 1867, p. 607.

<sup>3</sup>Report of the University of the State of Missouri, 1874, p. 53.

Prejudiced Attitude of University Authorities  
toward Normal Departments

It has already been noted that at the outset students entered the normal departments directly from the elementary schools. In the early history of the state universities the direct contact with elementary schools was necessary on account of the scarcity of high schools. The universities soon took steps, however, to remedy the situation by establishing preparatory departments or branches, as in the case of Michigan, to provide pre-college work. When preparatory departments were inaugurated in universities where normal departments existed, the question arose whether students in the normal department would continue their review of the common branches or would pursue academic work with a modicum of professional work. Both students and public-school officials favored grounding in the branches taught in the elementary schools. Universities, however, frowned upon drill work; frequently they classified students in normal departments with students in preparatory departments and required them to take academic work on the secondary level. That practice tended to divert students from their purpose of becoming teachers and to induce them to enter upon regular college work.

As educational development progressed, preparation for teaching increased. The establishment of high schools created a demand for teachers with good academic background. The demand led university authorities to require courses in normal instruction beyond the elementary level. A concrete case is found in the normal department of the University of Iowa. Stephen N. Fellows studied the subject of normal instruction for two years and reported the results to the president of the university in 1870. In his report he submitted a plan previously presented to the

Iowa State Teachers' Association. A quotation describing the plan will reflect his attitude and perhaps that of the Iowa teachers concerning the normal department.

Your committee would suggest as the University is at the head of the free schools, so the normal department should be the recognized head of the normal schools of the State; that there be established also, from year to year, such a number of normal schools as the wants of the State may require; that these normal schools be properly distributed throughout the State; that they all be of the same grade, each having a limited course of study and furnished with all the facilities of a training school where teachers in large numbers may be gathered and receive preparation for teaching in the primary grades and in the common or district schools of the State. The normal department should have a more extended course of study and facilities for a more complete scientific and professional training; so that even graduates of the elementary normal schools may, if they desire, attend the University, and in the normal and other departments, pursue a more extended course of readings, study and lectures, professional and scientific, and receive a certificate or diploma corresponding to their proficiency.<sup>1</sup>

He then related briefly the history of the normal department and suggested the trend of development it should take. Another quotation from the report will reflect further the evolution of the attitude toward the work of the normal department.

It will be remembered that the work of the normal department of the University was opened in September, 1855. During the first ten or twelve years of its history, it was practically an elementary normal school, having much of that time a model school and other appliances of a normal school. It was eminently proper at that time that this department should be of an elementary grade, for the University itself was largely engaged in preparatory work.

In 1867 the trustees wisely began to elevate the standard of scholarship requisite to admission. Generally this work has gone forward until the present time. For obvious reasons, the normal department has also raised its standard for admission, and added one year, and then another of higher branches to its course of study; thus keeping pace with the academical department in its growth and development. The result is, that for elementary teachers, the normal course as now arranged, has too many of the higher branches and too little opportunity for elementary drill; and at the same time it is not sufficiently extended for higher normal culture.

In my opinion, therefore, the time has come for us to take

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<sup>1</sup>Iowa Legislative Documents, 1872. I. 119-21.

another step forward toward the consummation of the system before mentioned, by transferring all elementary normal training to such normal schools as may be established throughout the State, reserving only to the University the higher normal work above referred to.<sup>1</sup>

The history of the normal department in the University of Iowa has been traced in the preceding chapter. Its culmination in 1873 in a department of didactics with the elimination of work for the education of elementary teachers was noted. The development of the normal work in the University of Iowa was more or less typical of that in the other state universities. A portion of the report presented by President W. F. Phelps of Winona, Minnesota--one of the most vigorous normal-school presidents in the country--and adopted by the National Normal Association in Cleveland, August, 1870, is quoted:

The work of the primary teacher is so distinctive and peculiar in its character and aims as to demand a distinctive and peculiar training therefore a training especially suited to the circumstances of the case.

In like manner the instructor in the higher departments of education has a work more especially his own, differing widely in its motives and methods and demanding attainments and qualifications very different from those of the elementary teacher. Hence those who are to occupy these higher walks of educational effort should be suited to their conditions and necessities; and it follows also, that the appliances for their education should be modified accordingly. In other words, the necessities of our system of public education at the present time demand training and instructors in the higher departments. And it would, in the judgment of the committee, vastly increase the efficiency of the normal school system if these two classes of institutions could be organized and conducted as separate establishments, each suited to its special work.<sup>2</sup>

There is presented here the germ of an idea that was later exhibited in the institutional development for the professional education of teachers. That development will be given extended consideration in subsequent chapters of this investigation.

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<sup>1</sup> Ibid.

<sup>2</sup> W. F. Phelps, "Report of a Course of Study for Normal Schools," Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1870, p. 12.

Partiality of Educational Leaders  
toward Normal Schools

Early advocates of normal departments argued for their establishment on the basis of financial and instructional economy. The general argument ran much as follows. Inasmuch as the normal instructor could be accommodated in the university building already existing, the state would be saved a substantial outlay for the construction of a new plant which the establishment of a separate institution would require. In like manner, a substantial saving would accrue to the state by utilization of members of the university staff, already in its employ, to offer the academic work required in the education of teachers. The practice would result, not only in a financial saving, but also in a scholastic gain as a result of the superior instruction imparted by a superior university staff. As a final argument it was contended that the professional work could be done as effectively in the university as in the normal school.

A memorial prepared by a committee of the board of curators of the University of Missouri and presented to the general assembly in 1848 illustrates the argument used to show the advantage of normal departments over normal schools. The following quotation summarizes the lengthy petition of the committee with respect to the relative merits of the two agencies.

It needs not a word of argument to prove that the professional instructions of the most accomplished Principal of a Normal School, can be more valuable to a class of teachers, than the same instruction of the same accomplished gentleman, in the capacity of 'Professor of the Theory and Practice of Teaching' in the State University. With regard to the former office, namely, the imparting of general knowledge to the class of teachers, it is manifest that the erection of the buildings, the purchase of Library and apparatus, and the support of the several chairs of instruction, indispensably necessary to enable the Normal School to do precisely that for the class of teachers, which the University now offers to do without money and without price, would involve the State in



large expenditure, justifiable indeed if nothing better could be done, but in view of the alternative now offered, entirely uncalled for, and in the judgment of your memorialists not entitled to the sanction of the General Assembly.<sup>1</sup>

In time, these arguments lost much of their original force. Expansion frequently had forced university authorities to procure new quarters for the normal department, especially when a model school was maintained. As the enrollment had increased, the surplus energy of the academic staff had become absorbed in its own immediate responsibilities. Additional instructors to provide instruction for the normal students had occasioned an increased drain on university funds. As a result of the changes, the presence of normal students on the university campus was not looked upon with the same degree of favor as it had been in the earlier history of the department. The change in attitude was further conditioned by the fact that normal students gradually fell farther behind other students in their qualifications for college work.

Change in attitude can not be fully interpreted without reference to the social changes that had taken place during the period. From 1850 to 1870 the population in the Middle States has increased enormously, approximately trebling in the states of Illinois, Michigan, Missouri, and Wisconsin. The material expansion had kept pace with the increase in population. Means of transportation had been increased by the construction of highways and railroads, the latter having more than doubled their track mileage from 1860 to 1870. The period of prosperity had been retarded during the Civil War, but had taken on new vigor almost immediately following the close of the War. The industrial prosperity, which culminated in the panic of 1873, had had its incep-

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools of the State of Missouri, 1848, p. 212.

tion in the previous decade. The means for intellectual development had been stimulated by the rapid material and physical expansion. The time was ripe for new educational agencies. The normal-school idea found a hospitable reception in the Middle States in the late sixties.

Just as normal departments in universities had their advocates, so normal schools had even more militant supporters. By many educators normal schools were considered the most effective agency for the preparation of teachers. They were favored particularly by chief state school officers as a means for qualifying teachers for elementary schools. An examination of the arguments advanced in support of normal schools will throw additional light upon the reason for their gaining ascendancy over normal departments in state universities. It will reveal, also, the most potent factor underlying the failure of normal departments in state universities.

In referring to the act of the legislature of Missouri of 1849, which had authorized the curators of the university to establish a normal department, the superintendent of common schools made the following statement: "The history of the most efficient school systems in this and other countries proves that this object can be best effected through the instrumentality of normal schools or teachers' seminaries."<sup>1</sup>

In his annual report for 1857 the superintendent of public instruction of Wisconsin quoted Horace Mann on the rise and progress of normal schools. He hoped that the arguments presented by Mann would secure from the legislature an appropriation for a normal school, an institution so imperiously demanded by the best

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<sup>1</sup>Journal of the House of Representatives of the State of Missouri, 1851, Appendix, p. 143.

interests of the public schools.<sup>1</sup> In the same report he commented favorably on the normal department in the university, but reiterated the need for a normal school. He had no objection, he said, to the most liberal endowment of the normal department, but when this had been secured, there was yet a need for a separate institution for the education of teachers. Other agencies could do much, he thought, by way of educating teachers for the public schools, but when these had done all they could, there would still be abundant room and opportunity for the state normal school.<sup>2</sup> Some years later J. L. Pickard, superintendent of public instruction, referred to the normal department of the university as inadequate.<sup>3</sup> Many of the students connected with the department, he said, were not normal students and had no expectation of engaging in the work of teaching. He thought it would be impossible to induce students in the normal department to pursue a course essential to a complete professional education. Furthermore, it was not possible to engraft a model school upon the normal department. He advocated the inauguration of a movement to establish a normal school at some point not easily accommodated by the normal department of the university.

In 1866 Oran Faville, superintendent of public instruction of the state of Iowa, made the following comparison with respect to the work in the normal department of the university and in normal schools.

The Normal Department of the State University has been in successful operation some ten years and a large number of students have pursued a partial course of study; but few, however, have completed the course and received diplomas. . . .

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<sup>1</sup>Wisconsin Legislative Documents, 1857, Vol. I, Doc. F, pp. 30-36.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1863, Doc. L, p. 676.

The facilities for pursuing studies in the other departments of the University are so great that comparatively few find time to finish the course in the Normal Department, and thus fit themselves for teaching. But in the Normal School all the students are preparing to teach, and all the subjects are arranged with that object in view.<sup>1</sup>

Governor Stone in his message to the legislature reinforced the recommendation of the superintendent of public instruction. He referred to the need for a normal school.

A Normal Department has been added to the State University, but it is questionable whether this provision is or can ever be adequate to the purpose. I would therefore most earnestly invite your attention to the importance and necessity of establishing a special school for the exclusive purpose of training teachers, with as little delay as possible.<sup>2</sup>

Abolition of the model school of the normal department of the University of Iowa elicited criticism on the part of Franklin D. Wells, superintendent of public instruction, who maintained that teaching as an art needed to be acquired by practice under intelligent criticism. He said, "In all institutions for the special training of teachers, principles should have an immediate application in practice, under the eye of experience and skill."<sup>3</sup> He strongly advocated the immediate establishment of normal schools on the basis that they would give the type of preparation needed. They were no longer an experiment; the anticipation of their friends had been fully realized in those states where they had been in existence; they were most firmly rooted in the affection and the judgment of the people where they had been longest established.

Brief mention has been made of the normal schools at this time in order to show the effect that they had on the history of

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<sup>1</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Iowa, 1866, p. 15.

<sup>2</sup>B. F. Shambaugh, Messages and Proclamations of the Governors of Iowa, 1866, p. 43. Iowa City: State Historical Society, 1903.

<sup>3</sup>Legislative Documents of Iowa, 1868, I, 41-42.

normal departments in state universities. Their influence on the education of teachers in the Middle States has been so significant that they merit extended consideration. Part III of this study will therefore be devoted in its entirety to normal schools.

#### Summary

Normal departments in state universities failed for three reasons: (1) They did not educate a sufficient number of teachers to meet the needs of the elementary schools; (2) they lost the favor of university officials because they occasioned financial drain on university funds, required room space and physical equipment needed for other purposes, and kept students on the campus whose scholarship was extremely low; and (3) they lost the favor of chief state school officers because they proved inadequate for supplying teachers for the public schools.



## CHAPTER VI

### DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION IN STATE UNIVERSITIES

Departments of education in state universities were not merely extensions of normal departments; they were new creations for a new and a different purpose, even though in the University of Iowa and in the University of Missouri they were a continuation of the normal departments. This chapter presents data concerning (1) the establishment of the departments, (2) their function, (3) their organization, (4) their program, and (5) their weaknesses.

#### Establishment of Departments of Education

In 1873 the normal department in the University of Iowa was modified and merged into what was known as the collegiate department with a chair of didactics established. The department was the first university department of education in the United States.<sup>1</sup> In 1892 the legislature of Missouri enacted a law by which the work of the Normal College was merged into that of the University.<sup>2</sup> Salient facts with respect to the establishment of departments of education in the state universities are presented in Table 4. Inspection of the table shows that the establishment of the departments extended over a period of twenty-three years, from 1873 to 1896. Various names were applied to the departments.

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<sup>1</sup>Forest C. Ensign, "Fifty Years of Education in the University of Iowa," University of Iowa Extension Bulletin, No. 133 (October 1, 1925), p. 14.

<sup>2</sup>G. W. A. Luckey, The Professional Training of Secondary Teachers in the United States, p. 73. New York: Columbia University, 1903.

TABLE 4

DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATION IN EIGHT STATE UNIVERSITIES<sup>a</sup>

| University | Date | Name                                  |
|------------|------|---------------------------------------|
| Iowa.....  | 1873 | Chair of Didactics                    |
|            | 1890 | Department of Pedagogy                |
|            | 1900 | The Art and Science of Teaching       |
|            | 1904 | Department of Education               |
| Michigan.. | 1879 | Chair of Theory and Art of Teaching   |
|            | 1907 | Department of Education               |
| Missouri.. | 1892 | Department of Education               |
| Wisconsin. | 1885 | Chair of Science and Art of Teaching  |
|            | 1888 | Department of Philosophy and Pedagogy |
|            | 1897 | School of Education                   |
|            | 1908 | Course for the Training of Teachers   |
| Indiana... | 1886 | Department of Pedagogics              |
|            | 1894 | Department of Philosophy and Pedagogy |
|            | 1902 | Department of Education               |
| Illinois.. | 1891 | Department of Pedagogics              |
| Minnesota. | 1893 | Department of Pedagogy                |
| Ohio State | 1896 | Department of Pedagogy                |
|            | 1898 | Department of Education               |

<sup>a</sup>Data were taken from various sources including the reports of chief state school officers and university catalogues, and such secondary sources as G. W. A. Luckey, The Professional Training of Secondary Teachers in the United States, and Leigh G. Hubbell, The Development of University Departments of Education in Six of the Middle States.

For example, in the University of Iowa the designation "Chair of Didactics" was first used.<sup>1</sup> In 1890 the name was changed to "Department of Pedagogy,"<sup>2</sup> in 1900, to "The Art and Science of Teaching,"<sup>3</sup> and in 1904, to the "Department of Education."<sup>4</sup> The other

<sup>1</sup>Luckey, op. cit., p. 68.      <sup>2</sup>Ensign, op. cit., p. 15.

<sup>3</sup>Leigh G. Hubbell, The Development of Departments of Education in Six of the Middle States, p. 25. Washington, D.C.: Catholic University, 1924.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

universities seemingly experienced similar difficulties in their selections of names. In Wisconsin and in Indiana the designations clearly imply that the departments were not always independent, but were allied with the department of philosophy in the university. In 1897 the Chair of Science and the Art of Teaching in the University of Wisconsin became the School of Education. However, the term "school of education" was not used in its present-day sense; it was merely a convenient term for expressing the work of one man who had charge of the extension work of the university, the summer-school work, and the work of the department of philosophy and pedagogy.

#### Function of Departments of Education

Departments of education in state universities were established primarily to provide professional preparation for prospective teachers on the secondary level. Incidentally, the departments aimed to promote study and scientific investigation of educational problems. When the chair of didactics was established in the University of Iowa in 1873, work was limited to seniors who desired to prepare for teaching in the high schools and the academies of the state.<sup>1</sup> William H. Payne, first professor to occupy the Chair of the Theory and Art of Teaching in the University of Michigan, formulated four objectives that have subsequently appeared in the statement of the aims of teacher-education in that university:

1. To promote the study of education as a science.
2. To secure to teaching the rights, prerogatives and advantages of a profession.
3. To fit university students for the higher positions in the public school service.

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<sup>1</sup>Ensign, op. cit., p. 14.

4. To give a more perfect unity to our state educational system by bringing the secondary school into closer relations with the university.<sup>1</sup>

Payne contended that the work of the department of education was never intended to be a duplication of the work done in the normal school, that with respect to the education of teachers, the university department and the normal school each had its independent sphere, and that the department of education was for the express purpose of preparing high-school teachers.<sup>2</sup>

Although the Indiana University catalogue in 1886 bore the announcement that the department of education in the University was designed to meet the demands for well prepared teachers of the higher positions in the public schools and colleges,<sup>3</sup> Richard G. Boone, first professor of pedagogy, believed that the department should not strive to present an art of teaching; that it should promote study of the nature and conditions of education as the basis for a doctrine from which to evolve an approved art of teaching.<sup>4</sup> He made clear the fact that the department of pedagogics in the University was not in any sense a normal school and that it was not designed to encroach upon ground occupied by the normal school.

The aim of the department of education in the University of Illinois was to meet the needs of prospective secondary-school teachers and superintendents.<sup>5</sup> Edwin G. Dexter in speaking of

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<sup>1</sup>Calvin O. Davis, "Teacher Training at the University of Michigan," The University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin, No. 3 (December, 1939), p. 37.

<sup>2</sup>Luckey, op. cit., p. 113.

<sup>3</sup>Catalogue of the Indiana University, 1886-87, pp. 48-49.

<sup>4</sup>Richard G. Boone, History of Education in Indiana, p. 382. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1892.

<sup>5</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., p. 12.

the work of the department said that the normal schools of the state were well equipped for supplying the wants of the elementary schools; it was intended that the work in the university department of education should supplement the work of the normal schools, not duplicate it.<sup>1</sup>

The University of Wisconsin borrowed from the University of Michigan the general organization of courses for the department of Science and Art of Teaching and borrowed also the idea for delimiting the work of the university department to the preparation of secondary teachers and supervisory officers.<sup>2</sup>

The purpose of the department of education in the Ohio State University was to prepare students for the profession of teaching by imparting two types of instruction: (1) knowledge of the history and the science of education and educational psychology by which might be acquired ideas of the end of education and of sound educational methods, and (2) knowledge of the subjects the students would be called upon to teach.<sup>3</sup> It can not be determined from the phraseology whether or not all grades of education were included.

#### Organization of Departments of Education

Departments of education were in the main organized in the liberal arts colleges as subdepartments, frequently of the department of philosophy or of the department of psychology. For example, the course in pedagogy in the Indiana University from 1894 to 1902 was administered within the department of philosophy.<sup>4</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., p. 12.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 9.

<sup>3</sup>Luckey, op. cit., pp. 122-25.

<sup>4</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., p. 27.



From 1882 to 1891 the courses in the department of education in the University of Missouri were administered by the English department.<sup>1</sup> Shift from an independent status to the position of a subdepartment under the department of philosophy occurred in the University of Wisconsin in 1888.<sup>2</sup> The first professional work at the University of Illinois was offered by Charles De Garmo of the department of psychology.<sup>3</sup>

The department of education was generally a one-man department conducted by a professor of education with the assistance perhaps of one or more university associates and in co-operation with other departments of the university. In the University of Iowa each man who occupied the Chair of Didactics prior to 1896 served alone. In that year J. J. McConnell was given as a teaching fellow a young graduate student, Herbert Clifford Dorcas.<sup>4</sup> Edwin G. Dexter at the University of Illinois in 1900 was given as an assistant Stratton D. Brooks.<sup>5</sup> In 1902 Stephen S. Colvin was appointed assistant professor of psychology. Until that time Dexter had carried the work of the psychology department as well as that of his own department. As previously stated for the University of Wisconsin, one man carried the combination of extension work, summer-school work, and the work of the department of education.

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<sup>1</sup>Jonas Viles (and Colleagues), The University of Missouri, A Centennial History, p. 262. Columbia, Missouri: The University of Missouri, 1839.

<sup>2</sup>Luckey, op. cit., pp. 109-110.

<sup>3</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., pp. 10-11.

<sup>4</sup>Ensign, op. cit., p. 15.

<sup>5</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., p. 26.

### Program of Departments of Education

At first the programs of the departments of education seem to have included a few hours of professional work added to the academic work given in the other departments of the university. The professional work comprised the history, the philosophy, and the science of education. In organizing the courses of instruction in the University of Michigan, Payne's general aim was to offer opportunities for the study of education in its three main phases--the practical, the scientific, and the historical.<sup>1</sup> The first work organized in the Ohio State University consisted of elementary and advanced courses in educational psychology, history of education, Herbartian pedagogy, philosophy of education, and institutes of education.<sup>2</sup> The professional work first mentioned in the University of Illinois comprised courses in educational psychology, the science of instruction, special methods, school supervision, the history of education, and the philosophy of education.<sup>3</sup> The three examples of course offerings are sufficient to show that the work in the departments of education was similar.

Prior to 1900 very few specialized courses were offered. Even the professors of education stressed in the main the need for broad academic preparation. When the normal department in the University of Iowa was merged into a collegiate department in 1873, Professor Fellows contended that "teachers need primarily accurate scholarship united with liberal culture."<sup>4</sup> Although the work that Professor Fellows offered is recognized as the first collegiate work in the professional education of teachers in the United

<sup>1</sup>Luckey, op. cit., p. 111.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 124.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 147-48.

<sup>4</sup>Catalogue of the University of Iowa, 1872-73, p. 46.

States, it consisted merely of three courses open only to seniors in the liberal arts colleges.<sup>1</sup> In the Indiana University "High School Training" was the title of a course offered during alternate years, but that course was not announced after 1899.<sup>2</sup>

In response to the widespread child-study movement in the United States during the nineties, courses in child psychology were sometimes given in the departments of education and sometimes offered in the departments of psychology. The courses usually dealt with infancy and childhood, but paid some attention also to the period of adolescence.<sup>3</sup> The work and the writings of G. Stanley Hall of Clark University did much to stimulate interest in the child-study movement and to impel the organization of courses in adolescent psychology. In the nineties general psychology had come to be a recognized essential in the preparation of high-school teachers, and before 1910 some experimental work in educational psychology was being carried on by William C. Bagley of Illinois, Carl E. Seashore of Iowa, W. B. Pillsbury of Michigan, and by J. R. Angell and Charles H. Judd of the University of Chicago. Experimentation resulted in renewed study of the purposes and the materials of secondary education, even though major emphasis continued to be placed on elementary-school problems.

The first professors of education seemingly believed it unnecessary to offer facilities for observation and student-teaching. Payne of Michigan said, "Considering the particular educational problem I have been set to solve, I could not well have a practice school if I would; and from all the light that comes to me from observation and reflection, I would not have such an

<sup>1</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., p. 54.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 59.

adjunct to my work if I could."<sup>1</sup> Payne thought that technical training and general education were incompatible when attempted simultaneously. He maintained that professional education should consist essentially of principles and not of rule-of-thumb procedures. He believed that history, philosophy, and science were essentials on which to build a career as teacher. Those subjects, therefore, became the essence of his curriculum.<sup>2</sup>

Luckey has summarized some of the reasons why educators felt that student-teaching was not essential in the preparation of high-school teachers. In the first place, full college preparation afforded scholarship, maturity, and broad culture upon which to base intelligent judgments for action; in the second place, methods of the high school were different from the methods of colleges with which the graduates were familiar and could not be effectively applied there; and in the third place, many college and university students in the department of education had already had sufficient teaching experience.<sup>3</sup>

By 1908 supervised teaching was a required course in the department of education in the Ohio State University, and a recommended course in both the University of Illinois and the Indiana University. The University of Iowa, the University of Michigan, and the University of Wisconsin were reported as planning to inaugurate directed teaching.<sup>4</sup> However, student-teaching never was carried on to a large degree in the departments of education.

A few examples of specific offerings in the departments

<sup>1</sup>Luckey, op. cit., p. 114.

<sup>2</sup>Davis, op. cit., p. 39.

<sup>3</sup>Luckey, op. cit., pp. 207-08.

<sup>4</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., p. 62.

are apropos. During the first year at the University of Michigan only two courses were offered, one for each semester, representing two hours or exercises a week. The first course, administered by lectures and assigned readings, was entitled "Practical: embracing school supervision, grading, courses of study, examinations, the art of instructing and governing, school architecture, school hygiene, and school law." The course of the second semester, administered by means of a text followed by recitations and lectures, was entitled "Historical, Philosophical, and Critical." The course embraced history of education, comparison and criticism of the systems in different countries, the outlines of educational science, the science of teaching, and a critical discussion of theories and methods.<sup>1</sup>

The nature of the work offered in the department of didactics in the University of Iowa in 1873 has been described by Homer H. Seerley. The students, he said, were first made acquainted with the limited literature in the field of public-school education; they then heard lectures by professors from other departments of the university. Finally, they were given a thorough course in mental philosophy by President Thatcher and an applied course in moral science by Mr. Fellows.<sup>2</sup>

By 1895-96 the University of Illinois had an elaborate program outlined by Professor Arnold Tompkins. The work included the motive for teaching, the universal form of method in education, the universal law and problem of thinking, and the logical and the psychological educational method.<sup>3</sup> In 1904 the work offered in

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<sup>1</sup>Luckey, op. cit., p. 106.

<sup>2</sup>Homer H. Seerley, "Iowa a Pioneer in the Preparation of Teachers," University of Iowa Extension Bulletin No. 133 (October 1, 1925), pp. 25-37.

<sup>3</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., p. 11.



the University of Missouri comprised a short course of two months for teachers, a regular summer schedule, and some extension work.<sup>1</sup> In Minnesota in 1892 a two-year course for teachers was organized in the University and in 1900 seminars were offered.<sup>2</sup>

A general idea of the work of the departments may be had by reviewing Leigh G. Hubbell's summary of the programs in the universities of Iowa, Michigan, Wisconsin, Indiana, Illinois, and Ohio. The departments offered from five to ten courses in educational history and philosophy, school administration, and methods. There was little or no differentiation of courses at first to meet the specific needs of any class of educational workers. Differentiated programs for high-school principals and special types of secondary teachers were gradually formulated. Main emphasis was always placed on the philosophical exposition of educational aims and values. The development of the science of psychology and statistical methods furnished materials for new courses, new problems, new techniques, none of which were fully realized during the life of the departments.<sup>3</sup>

#### Weaknesses of the Departments of Education

For inevitable reasons the departments of education proved inadequate for supplying the required number of secondary teachers of the right amount and the proper kind of preparation. Located as they were in the departments of the liberal arts colleges, university departments of education found themselves handicapped when it came to the matter of offering the technical preparation re-

<sup>1</sup>Viles, op. cit., p. 362.

<sup>2</sup>Jean H. Alexander, "Chronological Outline of the Development of Public Education in Minnesota," The Changing Educational World, p. 254. Edited by Alvin C. Eurich.

<sup>3</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., pp. 117-19.

quired by teachers of the newer vocational subjects, such as industrial arts, household arts, agriculture, and business education. The departments were independent in name only. The students had to register in the liberal arts college, and the control of the department was vested largely in the liberal arts faculty who often were not very sympathetic toward the scientific study of education. P. C. Cary, speaking at the jubilee exercises of the University of Wisconsin in 1904, said that "universities in the past have been none too friendly to the idea of professional training for teachers. In fact, the department of education has often been looked upon as a farce."<sup>1</sup> Criticisms similar to Cary's are to be found frequently in educational literature dealing with the departments of education.

Sometimes weak and inefficient men were placed in charge of the departments. It was not uncommon, says Luckey, for a university president to call to the professorship of education a man who had absolutely no scientific training for the field over which he was given charge. Luckey adds that the friends of no other university department would have been insulted in that manner.<sup>2</sup>

Experience had taught educators that methods courses offered by academic-minded professors were likely to be administered with a minimum of methodology, and that the conduct of experimental and demonstration schools seemed beyond the proper scope of a mere department within the liberal arts college. Moreover, there was a growing conviction among school men that teaching is a profession analogous to such other professions as law, medicine, engineering, and should be represented in the university by an independent school or college.

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 21.

<sup>2</sup>Luckey, op. cit., p. 154.

### Summary

Normal departments in the state universities of Iowa and Missouri underwent changes by which they became departments of education. The other state universities, including those which had abandoned normal departments, established departments of education within the period from 1873 to 1896. The departments were similar in function, organization, and program. Their purpose was twofold: to prepare teachers for the secondary schools and to study in a scientific way various educational problems. In promoting the dual aim, university officials hoped to unify the state system of education by bringing the secondary schools into closer contact with the university. Departments of education were generally organized as subdepartments under either the department of philosophy or the department of psychology. In their early history, the program consisted merely of a few hours of work in the history, the science, and the philosophy of education to supplement the regular academic work of the university. Supposedly a full college course afforded sufficient scholarship and culture to make extended professional work unnecessary for the education of high-school teachers. Prior to 1900 but few specialized courses were offered, and technical education in the newer subjects of the curriculum was not provided. Nor did the departments provide the necessary experimental and demonstration work. Too often the departments were not staffed by men of sufficient scholarship to command the respect of men in other departments of the university. Leading educators sensed the weaknesses of the departments and became convinced that teaching is analogous to the professions of medicine, law, and engineering with respect to an independent position as a college or school in the university.

### PART III

#### THE STATE NORMAL SCHOOL AS AN AGENCY FOR THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

The various means thus far described for providing professionally educated teachers for the common schools of the Middle States proved unsatisfactory. Importation of teachers from the eastern states early met with lasting and ever increasing opposition. The pioneer folk of the West thought that teachers who had been educated in eastern schools were too often imbued with the missionary spirit, were unfamiliar with western customs, and failed to adjust sufficiently to their new environment. The teachers' institute only partially achieved its purpose. It proved effective for brief periods of instruction, but it was inadequate for the full task of educating teachers for the common schools. The union or graded school and the high school never took seriously the task of educating teachers. They refined and extended the program of general education by providing a fundamental academic background for prospective teachers and by creating a demand for teachers with a more extended education. On the other hand, they did not supply the technical education essential to the preparation for teaching. The Wisconsin experiment of reimbursing private institutions for the education of teachers was unsuccessful and was not imitated in any other of the Middle States. The principle of state aid to private institutions for the education of teachers was too foreign to the traditional policy of American education ever to gain general popularity. And the opportunity to develop a single institution of higher learning to prepare for the teach-

ing profession was thwarted by the mismanagement of the normal departments in the state universities of Indiana, Iowa, Wisconsin, and Missouri. Had those universities adequately supported their normal departments, encouraged the enrollment of a sufficient number of students to satisfy the demand for teachers of the elementary schools, and provided adequately for the educational needs of teachers, they might have become the chief agencies in the professional education of teachers for the common schools; they might also have transmitted their prerogative to their legitimate heirs, first, to departments of education, and later, to colleges or schools of education in state universities.

The factors that were instrumental in bringing into existence the agencies to which considerable attention has already been given were instrumental also in the promotion of the normal school as an agency for the professional education of teachers. The factors consisted in the main of (1) the growing conviction of the value of universal education in a democracy, (2) the rapid material expansion, and (3) the growth of educational agencies, particularly elementary schools, in response to the political, the economic, and the social development. The demand was of such character as to require an adequate agency for meeting the need for teachers. The normal school possessed the essential qualities for meeting the need for elementary teachers and also for secondary teachers during the early period of high-school development. The normal school emerged from the experimental period, therefore, as the most popular agency for the professional education of teachers; it maintained that popularity for a half century.

Among educators vigorous discussion of institutions for the education of teachers took place in the United States in 1825



as the result of three notable reports printed in that year.<sup>1</sup> In 1826 both Governor Lincoln of Massachusetts and Governor Clinton of New York recommended to their respective legislatures the establishment of institutions to educate teachers. In 1836 Calvin E. Stowe published a book on the Prussian system of education and its applicability to the United States. Two years later an elaborate report on European schools, based on Stowe's observations on his travels abroad, was published by funds furnished by the Ohio legislature. That report was subsequently reprinted and circulated extensively by the legislatures of Pennsylvania, Michigan, North Carolina, and Virginia. In 1839 Alexander D. Bache published a comprehensive report on his observation of educational institutions in France, Prussia, Holland, and Switzerland. One chapter of the report was devoted to the education of teachers. Likewise, Horace Mann reported to the board of education in Massachusetts his observations during his educational tour through the principal countries of Europe in the summer of 1843. All the reports awakened special interest in the normal school as an institution for the education of teachers in the United States.

Teacher-educating institutions developed rapidly in Prussia as an essential aspect of the national system of education. By 1831 the Prussian system had gained sufficient reputation to attract the attention of prominent Frenchmen. In that year, M. Victor Cousin inspected the schools of Prussia and presented an elaborate report to the minister of public instruction, which report

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<sup>1</sup>Thomas R. Gallaudet, "Plan for a Seminary for the Education of Instructors of Youth." Boston; 1825. Pp. 39. James G. Carter, "Outline of an Institution for the Education of Teachers," Essays upon Popular Education. Boston: Bowles and Dearborn, 1826. Pp. 60. Walter R. Johnson, "Observations on the Improvement of Seminaries of Learning in the United States with Suggestions for Its Accomplishment." Philadelphia: E. Sittell, 1825. Pp. 28.

included a description of the Schulehrer Seminarien (primary normal school). The report, translated into English by Sarah Austin in 1834, greatly stimulated the development of education in both France and England. Also, prior to the establishment of normal schools in the United States, they had been established in Holland, Belgium, Sweden, Scotland, and Ireland. From the continent of Europe and England the normal-school movement spread to the United

Massachusetts was the first state to enter upon a program for the professional education of teachers by means of normal schools. Even after a decade of propaganda through the press, public lectures, and memorials to the legislature, initiative in the establishment of normal schools was not taken until an inducement of ten thousand dollars had been offered by private benevolence on condition that the legislature should appropriate an equal amount. The legislature made the appropriation in 1838, and within three years the board of education, under whose jurisdiction the normal schools were placed, opened three schools. While Massachusetts was experimenting with special institutions for the education of teachers, New York was experimenting with academies. The experiment in New York having failed, the legislature, in 1844, appropriated funds for the establishment of a normal school at Albany. The school was opened that same year. In 1849 Connecticut made provision for a normal school which opened the following year. In 1855 the legislature of New Jersey enacted a law appropriating an annual sum of \$10,000 for the support of a normal school for five consecutive years.

In a study of the development of the professional education of teachers in the Middle States, normal schools merit major consideration. For a period of more than fifty years, from 1860 to 1910 roughly considered, they constituted the main source for

teachers with professional education. The whole of Part III of this study is, therefore, devoted to an analysis of the normal-school development and program. Each essential feature of the normal school is presented more or less chronologically in separate chapters designated as follows: (1) Development of the Normal School Idea in the Middle States, (2) Establishment, Function, and Administration of Normal Schools, (3) Bases for Admitting Students to Normal Schools, (4) Character of the Student Body, and (5) The Normal-School Curriculum.

## CHAPTER VII

### DEVELOPMENT OF THE NORMAL-SCHOOL IDEA IN THE MIDDLE STATES

In this chapter will be presented the development of the normal-school idea in the Middle States up to the time of the establishment of the first normal school in each of the eight states. For this purpose two sources of data have been used: (1) reports of the Western Literary Institute; and (2) reports of the chief state school officers.

#### Promotion of the Normal-School Idea by the Western Literary Institute

As has been noted,<sup>1</sup> the Western Literary Institute aimed to advance education in part by making apparent to the public the great value of professional education for teachers. At its annual meeting in October, 1835, the Institute adopted a petition to be submitted to the various legislatures of the western and southwestern states requesting them to enact laws in behalf of universal education.<sup>2</sup> The petition also requested the legislatures to make provisions for the establishment of institutions for the professional education of a sufficient number of teachers to supply the needs of the common schools. A special institution for the preparation of teachers, the petition held, was necessary for effecting a system of universal education. Although the petition did not specify any particular institution, the later activities of the

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<sup>1</sup>See chap. i, p. 1.

<sup>2</sup>Transactions of the Western Literary Institute and College of Professional Teachers, 1835, p. 4.

Institute indicate that it was the normal school for which legislation was sought.

At the next annual meeting of the Institute, 1836, J. P. Harrison, in a lecture on the advantages of a system of popular education, advocated the establishment of normal schools from one end of the country to the other. "Normal schools," he said, "are for the instruction of young men, that they may be properly prepared for the responsible duties of school masters."<sup>1</sup> The minutes of the meeting for 1837 show that Samuel Lewis had been commissioned to report on the subject of normal schools.<sup>2</sup> He asked to be excused inasmuch as he had not yet made up his mind on the subject. A resolution was adopted, however, favoring the establishment of institutions designed specifically for the education of teachers and asserting that the influence of those institutions would be favorable to the cause of education.

In 1838 the Institute exerted its final effort to induce the states of the area covered by this study to provide special institutions for the education of teachers. Samuel Lewis offered a series of resolutions with respect to the need for qualified teachers and the character of the agencies for supplying them.<sup>3</sup> He suggested that the topic be referred to Calvin E. Stowe, who should report on the following points: (1) the studies that should be taught in institutions for the education of teachers, (2) the educational progress that should be required for admission, (3) the amount of the expense that should be borne by the state, (4) the number of instructors that would be required for an enrollment of three hundred students, and (5) the advisability of teaching the two sexes in the same institution. Stowe, responding to

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1836, p. 176.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1837, p. 13.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1838, p. 12.



the task, submitted a series of four resolutions.<sup>1</sup> The first stated that the interest of popular education demanded the establishment of normal schools, one in each state at the seat of government and under the patronage of the legislature; the second favored as requirements for admission a minimum age of sixteen years and familiarity with the common-school subjects; the third contained an outline of a proposed course of study; and the fourth advocated the establishment of a model school in connection with the normal school to provide seniors opportunity for teaching under the guidance of the instructors of the normal school.

The three-year course of study suggested by Stowe included the following subjects: the common-school branches, the philosophy of the mind, the science of education, the art of teaching, the art of governing, the history of education, and German, French, Spanish, and the elements of Latin. In addition, Stowe advocated impressing upon students the dignity and the importance of the teaching profession, the religious obligations with respect to the moral and the intellectual welfare of society, the habits of self-control, and purity of mind.

The foregoing paragraphs summarize the efforts of the Institute to put before the people of the Middle States the need for professional education of teachers and to induce the legislatures to establish normal schools. The efforts of the Institute resulted in no immediate action by the states, but undoubtedly had much influence in turning the attention of the public to the merits of normal schools.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 20.

Promotion of the Normal-School Idea by  
Chief State School Officers

Most of the chief state school officials of the various Middle States propagated the normal-school idea. Those men were among the foremost educators of their respective states; they were well informed concerning educational thought and practices in other states as well as in other countries; they were particularly sensitive to the educational practices of the eastern states where many of them had been educated. Naturally they looked to the East for institutional models. As state officials they were required to make either annual or biennial reports concerning the status of education. County superintendents reported to state officials the local conditions and needs of the common schools. From the reports of chief state school officers, then, may be obtained perhaps the most coherent and the most authentic picture of the growth of the normal-school idea.

Development of normal-school idea in Ohio.--In 1838 the Ohio legislature passed a resolution directing the superintendent of common schools to make, at the next general assembly, a report concerning an institution for the education of teachers covering the following topics: the proper location of the institution or institutions, the estimated expense, the proper mode of support, and a proposed course of study.<sup>1</sup> In response to the resolution, Samuel Lewis, state superintendent, submitted to the legislature in 1839 his report.<sup>2</sup> He described in considerable detail the status of teachers then in service and the great need for better-educated teachers; he proposed a plan for the establishment of a central normal school at Columbus to be affiliated with one of the

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<sup>1</sup>Ohio Laws, 1838, p. 418.

<sup>2</sup>Lewis, op. cit., pp. 211-43.

city schools for which large buildings were soon to be constructed. A single institution, he well knew, would not be adequate to supply a sufficient number of properly educated teachers, but the enterprise would be new and the financial investment would be small during the experimental period. He estimated that an appropriation of \$5,000 annually would be sufficient to employ three professors for the education of from eighty to one hundred teachers. The benefits to be derived from the central normal school would not be limited to students directly under its tutelage; by the establishment and the maintenance of high standards the school could and would radiate its influence to every part of the state.

As to the details of the organization and the management of the institution the superintendent was unwilling to commit himself. He believed that the legislature should appoint a board to assume these and similar responsibilities. He suggested that there should be maintained in connection with the institution a school of the different grades from the primary to the highest.

Apparently the legislature took no action with respect to the recommendations. At the next session of the legislature Lewis submitted his resignation, and the position of superintendent of common schools was reduced to a subsidiary place in the state department. Thus the influence needed to sponsor successfully a bill through the legislature was probably lacking thereafter.<sup>1</sup>

Educational officials in Ohio more or less constantly kept the normal-school idea before the public. In 1848 Samuel Galloway devoted a part of his annual report to the testimony of such men as Cousin, Bache, Mann, and Stowe, on the value of normal schools.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 246 and 261.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the Secretary of State, 1848, pp. 8-10.

In 1851 Henry W. King pointed out the advantages of normal schools as means for educating teachers.<sup>1</sup> In 1855 H. H. Barney maintained that fifteen years of successful experience with normal schools in Massachusetts had established their validity.<sup>2</sup> In 1857 Anson Smyth entered into a lengthy discussion with respect to the character of normal schools and the need for their establishment in Ohio.<sup>3</sup> In 1864 E. E. White advocated the establishment of a normal department in the industrial college to be established with the funds derived from the lands granted by an act of congress.<sup>4</sup> In 1867 John A. Norris presented a trenchant argument for the establishment of at least one first-class normal school to complete, with the teachers' institutes, a system for the professional education of teachers.<sup>5</sup>

The vigorous campaign waged by early chief state school officers for the professional education of teachers began to wane about 1870 and was not revived until Oscar T. Corson had assumed the office of state commissioner of education. In his report for 1893 Corson lamented the fact that Ohio, which had stood out so prominently in its history in so many ways, had never made provision for the special education of teachers. For remedying the situation he advocated an appropriation for utilizing the colleges, universities, and private normal schools by establishing in them departments of pedagogy organized and conducted under supervision of the state board of examiners.<sup>6</sup> He commented on that same pro-

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1851, pp. 25-26.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the State Commissioner of Education, 1855, pp. 28-30.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1857, pp. 24-30.

<sup>4</sup>Executive Documents, 1865, Part I, pp. 407-09.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1868, Part II, pp. 534-35.

<sup>6</sup>Annual Report of the State Commissioner of Common Schools, 1893, pp. 15-17.

posal in his report for 1895 stating that in the absence of legislative appropriation the state board of examiners had outlined a thorough course in pedagogy, which had been adopted in its main features in nearly all the institutions of higher learning in the state. He stated also that the board of trustees of the Ohio State University had decided at a recent meeting that the next department to be established in that institution was to be a department of pedagogy.<sup>1</sup> In his last annual report in 1897 Corson again reverted to the growing necessity for better-prepared teachers. He believed that in spite of the advance which had been made in the increased number of pedagogical departments in colleges, universities, and private normal schools the opportunities for the education of teachers in Ohio were not commensurate with the needs and the demands of the age. He therefore called attention to the following resolution that had been unanimously adopted at the last meeting of the state teachers' association:

That the sentiment of the Association is, without reservation, in favor of such a system of State Normal Schools as will insure not only the adequate training of teachers for their work but also the efficient qualifying of our young men and women for positions of leadership in educational affairs.<sup>2</sup>

In the revival of the advocacy for better facilities for the professional education of teachers, perhaps no one expressed himself more vigorously than did Commissioner Bonebrake in his report for 1899. He discussed the situation in Ohio with respect to teachers--the number employed in the schools and the new recruits needed each year; the loyalty of those teachers to their work and their efforts to advance in their education; and the growing sentiment for better facilities for the education of teach-

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1895, pp. 11-12.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1897, p. 44.



ers. He then proposed a plan which would, in his opinion, most nearly meet the common sentiment of the leading educators of the state. The plan was to establish in the university a college of education comparable to the other colleges with respect to building facilities, pedagogical equipment, and faculty.<sup>1</sup> He recommended that the state establish in addition to the college of education a series of four or five normal schools so located as to serve all sections of the state. A system of institutions he believed would make reasonable provision for the professional education of all classes of teachers. Seemingly he participated in the preparation of a bill popularly known as "The Normal School Bill," which was presented to the general assembly in its session for 1900. The measure was defeated in the house by a vote of 52 to 54.<sup>2</sup> In his next report Bonebrake quoted the recommendations of President Alston Ellis of Ohio University and of President W. O. Thompson of Ohio State University in which they advocated the establishment of a college for teachers in each of their respective institutions.<sup>3</sup>

The growing sentiment in Ohio for a special provision for the professional education of teachers brought results in 1902. In that year the legislature passed an act to establish normal schools in connection with Ohio University at Athens and with Miami University at Oxford.<sup>4</sup> The boards of trustees of the two institutions were authorized to organize normal schools at their respective universities not later than September, 1903. The actual date of opening preceded by one year that set by the legislature.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1899, pp. 11-13.      <sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1900, pp. 16-17.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1901, pp. 16-18.

<sup>4</sup>The State of Ohio General and Local Acts, 1902, pp. 45-46.

Development of the normal-school idea in Michigan.--In the early educational history of that state Michigan had sought to obtain teachers primarily through the branches of the university; but the branches had proved ineffective. Educational leaders, therefore, were obliged to turn their attention to other means for securing professionally educated teachers. As early as 1843, O. C. Comstock reported concerning the normal schools set up by European countries.<sup>1</sup> He did not follow up his reference to those institutions with a vigorous recommendation for their establishment in Michigan. Ira Mayhew in 1846 recommended the introduction of a system of teachers' institutes rather than the establishment of a single normal school.<sup>2</sup> In 1847 Governor Felch recognizing the need for qualified teachers referred to the normal school as an institution that had been fostered in other states by private munificence and legislative aid and which had been attended with beneficial results. He left to the consideration of the legislature whether the normal school or any other institution of public nature for the education of teachers should be established in Michigan.<sup>3</sup>

In 1848 Governor Ransom referred to the normal school as an institution which had been productive of much good in other states and which would probably meet with similar results in Michigan if established there. Like his predecessor, however, he did not urge the legislature to establish such a school.<sup>4</sup> In 1848 the board of visitors of the university recommended that the salt-

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<sup>1</sup>Joint Documents of the Senate and House of Representatives, 1844, p. 7.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1846, Part IV, p. 34.

<sup>3</sup>Joint Documents of the State of Michigan, 1851, pp.150-51.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 153.

spring lands be appropriated for the support of a state normal school, branches of the university, and other seminaries of learning.<sup>1</sup>

The normal-school idea did not take firm root in Michigan until hope had vanished that the university branches would furnish teachers. By 1845 the ineffectiveness of the branches had been demonstrated. By 1849 serious doubt had arisen as to whether the legislature or the university board of regents had legal right to appropriate for the support of the branches funds derived from land granted by the United States.<sup>2</sup> Almost concurrently with the discontinuance of the branches, the legislature authorized the establishment of a normal school.<sup>3</sup> The act gave Michigan the first permanent normal school in the Middle States.

Development of the normal-school idea in Indiana.--The normal-school idea was slow to gain favor in Indiana. In his report the first superintendent of public instruction, W. C. Larrabee, stated: "So large is our territory, and so diversified are our circumstances, that no reasonable number of Normal schools would suffice to give us all a fair and equal chance."<sup>4</sup> He thought that for a time the state should rely upon the high schools, colleges, and normal department in the state university for an adequate supply of teachers. Larrabee's successor, Caleb Mills, believed that teachers' institutes should precede normal schools.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Joint Documents of the Senate and of the House of Representatives, 1848, No. 5, pp. 19-20.

<sup>2</sup>University of Michigan Regents' Proceedings, 1837-64, p. 415.

<sup>3</sup>Acts of the Legislature of the State of Michigan, 1849, No. 138.

<sup>4</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of Indiana, 1852, p. 34.

<sup>5</sup>Documents of the General Assembly of Indiana, 1855, p. 838.

When Samuel L. Rugg assumed the duties of superintendent of public instruction in 1860, he exhibited a much more constructive attitude with respect to the need for normal schools than had his predecessors. In his first report, he described the function of normal schools and advocated their adoption by Indiana:

I fear that we will never realize that completeness of qualification of teachers which we desire . . . . until the State adopts and carries into effect some plan of normal school instruction for her teachers, by which she can properly educate, train and improve them in the science and practice of teaching, for the better supplying her common schools. Until the State effectively moves in this matter we cannot expect that very many of the eight or ten thousand teachers annually employed in the schools of the State will stand forth in the foremost rank of their profession as its finished ornaments.<sup>1</sup>

In the eleventh report, the superintendent of public instruction, also Samuel L. Rugg, presented vigorous argument for the establishment of normal schools.<sup>2</sup> The growing need for normal schools resulted in legislative action in 1865. That year the state normal school was established at Terre Haute.<sup>3</sup>

Development of the normal-school idea in Illinois.--The growth of the normal-school idea in Illinois was not vigorous at the outset. At the State School Convention held in Peoria in 1844, and devoted to the subject of common-school education, a memorial praying the legislature to modify the school system of the state was adopted and later presented to the legislature.<sup>4</sup> The memorial did not mention normal schools nor did it refer to any particular plan for obtaining better teachers; but in response to the memorial

<sup>1</sup>Reports of the Officers of the State of Indiana, 1859-60, Part I, p. 215.

<sup>2</sup>Documents of the General Assembly, 1863, pp. 14-15.

<sup>3</sup>Laws of the State of Indiana, 1865, pp. 140-42.

<sup>4</sup>Reports to the Senate and House of Representatives, 1844, I, 99-101.

the legislature made it the duty of the state superintendent of common schools to report on the conditions of the schools of the state.<sup>1</sup>

In his first report the superintendent called attention to the fact that other states had established institutions to educate teachers. He believed that Illinois was not ready to establish that type of institution. Economically the state was embarrassed and, besides, the public schools were in their infancy. He thought that the time was not far distant when the necessity for that kind of institution would become obvious to all. William H. Powell, superintendent of public instruction, in his report for 1857-58, showed how a realization of the necessity had become sufficiently widespread to induce legislative action:

A necessity of one or more Normal Schools to educate teachers for the Common Schools of the State has long been felt to exist by the more enlightened friends of popular education. And, though there has been, it must be confessed, no little diversity of opinion among the advocates of the establishment of such an institution, as to the particular kind of institution required; all have cordially agreed that some more efficient agency for the education of teachers, than existed in the State, was imperatively demanded. To that end, a few of the leading friends of such an institution commenced the agitation of the subject through the public press, and by means of lectures and educational conventions, nearly seven years since; and through their agency the subject was brought prominently before the people, who everywhere indorsed the principle, though like those who were leading in the enterprise, they differed somewhat radically as to the manner in which the end sought was to be attained.<sup>2</sup>

The disparity of opinion to which reference was made in the preceding paragraph led to three groups of advocates. One group favored state aid to establish normal departments in private colleges; a second group favored the establishment of an industrial university with a normal department; and a third group favored the establishment of a normal school. A bill embodying the views of

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1846, I, 50.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1859, II, 52-53.



those who favored the normal school was presented to the legislature and enacted into law in 1857.<sup>1</sup>

Development of the normal-school idea in Missouri.--At a relatively early date in the history of education in Missouri the superintendent of common schools described the institutions for the education of teachers in Holland and Prussia; by implication at least he suggested the need for similar institutions in Missouri.<sup>2</sup> Other superintendents also called attention to the need for normal schools; but, on account of the hope entertained for the development of a normal department in the state university, the normal-school idea had slow growth prior to 1856. In May of that year Horace Mann attended a meeting of the Missouri State Teachers' Association and set before that organization the necessity and the expediency of establishing state normal schools.<sup>3</sup> The following year Superintendent Starke earnestly urged the legislature to adopt some means by which the state would be furnished a sufficient number of competent teachers. He asserted that in all the states where normal schools had been established, their usefulness and their efficiency had been recognized. He believed that public sentiment in Missouri was rapidly concentrating in favor of similar institutions.<sup>4</sup>

In 1864 a bill for the establishment of a state normal university was introduced into the house of representatives and referred to the committee on education.<sup>5</sup> The committee seems not

<sup>1</sup>Laws of the State of Illinois, 1857, pp. 298-301.

<sup>2</sup>Journal of the Senate of the State of Missouri, 1842, Appendix, pp. 470-71.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1856, pp. 248-50.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1857, pp. 116-18.

<sup>5</sup>Journal of the House of Representatives, 1864, p. 230.

to have reported on the bill; at least it was not enacted into law.

Just a decade after the Missouri State Teachers' Association had presented a memorial to the legislature praying for the establishment of a normal school, the same organization presented another memorial designed to induce the legislature to establish a normal school in some convenient locality.<sup>1</sup> William T. Harris, then city superintendent of schools of St. Louis and later United States Commissioner of Education, was chairman of the memorial committee. The committee gave the following reasons for requesting the establishment of a normal school: (1) the manifest lack of efficient teachers to supply the increasing demand of the state, (2) the lack of institutions within the state to provide for the responsible work of teaching, (3) the economy of educating teachers within the state, (4) the demonstrated evidence in the experience of other countries and in other states of the superiority of normal schools over departments in other institutions, and (5) the various benefits derived from normal schools.

In 1869 a bill entitled "An Act to Aid in the Establishment of Normal Schools" was introduced into the house of representatives. It was read a first and a second time, two hundred copies were ordered printed, and it was then referred to the committee on education.<sup>2</sup> The bill was never enacted into law. The next year, however, the legislature made provision for the establishment of normal schools.<sup>3</sup> Thus after a lapse of more than a quarter

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<sup>1</sup>Journal of the Missouri State Senate, 1857, Appendix, pp. 197-99.

<sup>2</sup>Journal of the House of Representatives of the State of Missouri, 1869, p. 256.

<sup>3</sup>Laws of the General Assembly of Missouri, 1870, pp. 134-36.

of a century the suggestion of the first superintendent of common schools of Missouri for the establishment of normal schools bore fruit.

Development of the normal-school idea in Iowa.--Iowa made an auspicious beginning in the establishment of normal schools. On January 15, 1849, within three years after gaining statehood, Iowa approved legislation for the establishment of three normal schools to be located at Andrew, Oskaloosa, and Mount Pleasant.<sup>1</sup> The school at Andrew was opened November 21, 1849, and the one at Oskaloosa, September 13, 1852.<sup>2</sup> The Mount Pleasant school did not materialize. The life of the two schools was short. By the act of creation each institution was to receive the sum of \$500 annually, one-fourth of which was to be drawn quarterly from the university fund.<sup>3</sup> The financial support from the fund was not forthcoming, and local support was insufficient to maintain the schools. Thomas H. Benton, superintendent of public instruction recommended the correction of this evil by establishing a definite fund for the normal schools and freeing them from connection with the university.<sup>4</sup> As no such fund was created, the normal schools ceased, although the normal-school idea did not die.

In his official capacity, Superintendent James D. Fads in 1856 recommended the establishment of a normal school at some central point in the state.<sup>5</sup> For the next decade the attitude in

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<sup>1</sup>Acts and Resolutions of the State of Iowa, 1846, p. 379.

<sup>2</sup>Journal of the House of Representatives of the State of Iowa, 1852, Appendix, pp. 100-101.

<sup>3</sup>Acts and Resolutions of the State of Iowa, sec. 4, p. 379.

<sup>4</sup>Journal of the House of Representatives of the State of Iowa, 1852, Appendix, p. 101.

<sup>5</sup>House Documents of the State of Iowa, 1856, Appendix, p. 654.

Iowa with respect to normal schools was probably affected by the normal department in the university which manifested its most active efforts to educate teachers for the common schools. By 1866 apprehension was beginning to manifest itself concerning the adequacy of the normal department to furnish the teachers needed for the common schools, and attention was again directed toward the normal school. The following ideas were expressed by Oran Faville:

The experience of other States and countries shows conclusively that well prepared teachers can be furnished only by special schools of instruction. The idea of Normal Schools is neither new nor visionary. They have been in successful operation more than one hundred years, and are rapidly multiplying wherever their value is known.<sup>1</sup>

The same sentiment was expressed in the governor's message to the legislature. In speaking of the importance of education, he called the attention of the members of the legislature to the need for thoroughly educated teachers.

To supply this pressing want, a Normal Department has been added to the State University; but it is questionable whether this provision is or can well be adequate to the purpose. I would therefore most earnestly invite your attention to the importance and necessity of establishing a special school for the exclusive purpose of training teachers, with as little delay as possible.<sup>2</sup>

In each succeeding biennium the desirability of establishing normal schools was urged upon the legislature by the superintendent of public instruction.<sup>3</sup> The nature of the recommendations and the force of the arguments varied with the personalities of the school officials. The reports all manifested, however, growing sentiment in favor of normal schools. References were made

<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1866,  
p. 14.

<sup>2</sup>Shambaugh, op. cit., III, 42.

<sup>3</sup>Reports of the Superintendent of Public Instruction:  
Legislative Documents of the General Assembly of the State of Iowa,  
1868, I, 37-44; ibid., 1870, p. 25; ibid., 1872, pp. 22-23; ibid.,  
1874, pp. 69-76; ibid., 1876, pp. 104-105.

in them to the activities of the teachers' association and to the normal-school committees for inducing the legislature to establish an institution to educate teachers. In 1876 the legislature made legal provision for the establishment of a normal school at Cedar Falls.<sup>1</sup>

Development of the normal-school idea in Wisconsin.--The constitution of Wisconsin stipulated that the school fund in excess of that used for the support and the maintenance of common schools should be appropriated to the support and the maintenance of academies and normal schools.<sup>2</sup> There was, however, no division of the general school fund to effectuate the establishment of normal schools. The normal department in the university and the normal departments in private institutions and high schools undoubtedly retarded the development of the normal-school idea.

In 1857 the legislature set aside one-fourth of the proceeds from swamp and overflowed lands for the encouragement of academies and normal schools.<sup>3</sup> The use of the fund for the encouragement of private institutions to educate teachers has been described.<sup>4</sup> A portion of the fund was to be used to establish a normal school whenever any town, city, or village in the state should give a site and suitable buildings and fixtures for a State Normal School, free from all incumbrances.<sup>5</sup> That gift would be accepted by the special board for administering the funds whenever the interests of education would be advanced by doing so. The

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<sup>1</sup>Acts and Resolutions of the State of Iowa, 1876, pp. 118-20.

<sup>2</sup>Constitution of Wisconsin, 1848, art. x, sec. 1.

<sup>3</sup>Acts of the Legislature of Wisconsin, 1857, pp. 93-98.

<sup>4</sup>See chap. iii, pp. 34-38.

<sup>5</sup>Acts of the Legislature of Wisconsin, 1857, pp. 93-98.



amount from the fund would be used to pay teachers for the proposed normal school but would not exceed three thousand dollars annually. At the time, the entire proceeds from the fund were being used to pay agents of the board and to remunerate private institutions and public high schools for the maintenance of normal departments. Emanating from the office of the superintendent of public instruction was more or less agitation, however, for the establishment of normal schools.

In submitting his report in 1849, Eleazor Root presented a brief history of the normal schools of Massachusetts and of New York.<sup>1</sup> He referred to the constitutional provision in Wisconsin for the maintenance of normal schools and to the provision in the act creating the university for a department of the theory and practice of elementary instruction. The proposed department aided by some subordinate agency, such as teachers' institutes, the superintendent believed, would supply for a time the demand for qualified teachers.

Superintendent Azel P. Ladd urged the legislature to establish teachers' institutes, which he designated temporary normal schools. He was not unmindful, however, of the need for normal schools.

There should be in our own midst an institution in which a thorough knowledge, not only of the science of teaching, but also of classification and discipline, might be acquired.  
 . . . .

Until we have an institution of this kind, we cannot reasonably expect the character of our schools will be commensurate with the munificence of our fund. I would therefore commend this subject to your consideration.<sup>2</sup>

In his report for 1856, A. Constantine Barry set before

<sup>1</sup>Report of the State Superintendent, 1849, p. 126.

<sup>2</sup>Governor's Message and Documents, 1854, Doc. F, pp. 53-54.

the people of Wisconsin a clear and forceful argument for the establishment of normal schools.<sup>1</sup> He quoted at length from Horace Mann concerning the rise and progress of normal schools; and he pointed out that Wisconsin was able to enter upon the commendable enterprise of establishing normal schools.

A normal department in the university and also the normal departments under jurisdiction of the regents of the normal-school board took on a more hopeful aspect with the advent into the state of Henry Barnard. He served not only as chancellor of the university, but also as professor in the normal department and as agent for the regents of the normal-school board. His services in the state, however, were of short duration. The high hopes thus entertained were not realized under the supervision of Barnard, and the superintendents of public instruction again turned their attention to normal schools. In his report for 1863 J. L. Pickard stated his views of the situation:

No one school will supply the wants of the State. The State should make liberal provision for the professional training of her teachers. At any rate a movement should soon be inaugurated to establish one school at some point that can not be easily accommodated by the Normal Department of the State University. Eventually, still other Normal Schools will be erected. We should look to the establishment of not less than four such schools, including the Normal Department of the University. . . . No argument need be adduced in favor of the Normal School. Its advantages and its claims are well understood. The only question that can arise is a question of time of establishment. It is my impression that the present is the proper time to take the initiatory steps.<sup>2</sup>

Superintendent John G. McMyn had the same point of view:

The present is believed to be not an inauspicious time to inaugurate the enterprise of founding a normal school. We must abandon the idea of making educational progress until this step is taken. To obtain competent instructors for our

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1857, I, 30-35.

<sup>2</sup>Messages of the Governor of Wisconsin, 1863, Doc. L, p.

children under existing circumstances, is simply impossible.<sup>1</sup>

In 1865 the law governing the disposal of the swamp and overflowed lands and the use of the proceeds from those lands was superseded by a new law that provided for the establishment of normal schools.<sup>2</sup> The enactment required that one-half the revenue derived from the sale of swamp and overflowed lands be transferred to the normal-school fund. It required also that the income from the fund be applied to establishing, supporting, and maintaining normal schools. It was stipulated that 25 per cent of the income from the normal-school fund be transferred annually to the common-school fund until the income from the latter should reach \$200,000 annually. The act of 1865 assured the establishment of normal schools at several points in Wisconsin. The board of regents adopted the plan to locate a school in each congressional district and on February 28, 1866, voted to locate schools at Whitewater and Platteville. Donations from the latter of the building and grounds of the Platteville Academy enabled the board to open that school October 9, 1866.<sup>3</sup>

Development of the normal-school idea in Minnesota.--During the development of the normal-school idea in the Middle States, Minnesota was a relatively pioneer state. In 1860 it was estimated that the population of the state had an average residence of only four or five years.<sup>4</sup> The people had come mainly from other of the Middle States and from eastern United States; therefore, a description of the early normal-school attitude in Minnesota is but a

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1864, p. 100.

<sup>2</sup>Acts of the Legislature of Wisconsin, 1865, pp. 643-51.

<sup>3</sup>Albert Salisbury, Historical Sketch of Normal Instruction in Wisconsin, p. 36. Whitewater, Wisconsin, 1893.

<sup>4</sup>First Annual Report of the Normal-School Board, 1860, p.9.

portrayal of the attitude of the communities from which the people had come. The first state legislature made provision for the establishment of normal schools.<sup>1</sup> Under that provision, the first normal school west of the Mississippi River was opened at Winona, Minnesota, September 3, 1860.<sup>2</sup>

### Summary

The Western Literary Institute had much influence in directing public attention to the merits of normal schools. The Institute petitioned the legislatures of the western and southwestern states to enact laws in behalf of universal education. It followed its petitions with resolutions favoring the establishment of special institutions for the education of teachers. In 1837 the Institute requested Samuel Lewis to report on the subject of normal schools, which report Lewis made in 1838. The annual reports of the Institute were influential propaganda even though they occasioned no immediate action by the several states.

Chief state school officers constantly propagated the normal-school idea. Annually or biennially they reported the urgent need for better-prepared teachers. They made many suggestions as to the means by which qualified teachers could be secured. School officers were aware of the benefits from normal schools; they set before the public those benefits and asserted that the normal school would be productive of much good once it had been instituted. Although the normal-school idea did not take firm root in the Middle States until other less complex agencies had failed, the feeling grew that well prepared teachers could be furnished only by special schools. In spite of the fact that the

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<sup>1</sup>General Laws of the State of Minnesota, 1858, pp. 261-63.

<sup>2</sup>Report of State Normal Board, 1868, p. 11.

normal-school movement was retarded by normal departments in state universities, each of the Middle States eventually adopted the normal school as a promising means for producing an adequate supply of teachers for the common schools.



CHAPTER VIII  
ESTABLISHMENT, FUNCTION, AND ADMINISTRATION  
OF NORMAL SCHOOLS

In the preceding chapter the growth of the normal-school idea in the Middle States was traced to the date of the establishment of the first permanent normal school in each of the states. The present chapter concludes the account of the establishment of these schools and in addition analyzes their function and their administration. The chapter is divided therefore into three sections: the establishment of normal schools; the function of normal schools; and the administration of normal schools.

Establishment of Normal Schools

Certain facts with respect to the establishment of normal schools in the eight Middle States are presented in Table 5. The schools are listed according to the states arranged alphabetically and are designated by the names of the towns in which they are located; both dates of approval and dates of opening are given. Because legislative acts become effective only after they have been approved by the governor, the dates of approval are used as the dates for the legal establishment of the schools.

The establishment of normal schools ranged from the year 1849 to the year 1918, inclusive. The year 1890 divided the period into two equal parts with respect to the number of normal schools founded prior to and following that date. The decade from 1865 to 1875 witnessed the establishment of the largest number of normal schools within any ten-year period. Only three schools had

TABLE 5

ESTABLISHMENT OF NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE MIDDLE STATES<sup>a</sup>

| Location          | Date of Approval  | Date of Opening    |
|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------|
| <b>Illinois:</b>  |                   |                    |
| Normal.....       | February 18, 1857 | October 5, 1857    |
| Carbondale....    | April 19, 1869    | July 2, 1874       |
| DeKalb.....       | May 22, 1895      | September 12, 1899 |
| Charleston....    | May 22, 1895      | September 12, 1899 |
| Macomb.....       | April 24, 1899    | September 23, 1902 |
| <b>Indiana:</b>   |                   |                    |
| Terre Haute...    | December 20, 1865 | January 6, 1870    |
| Muncie.....       | .....             | June 17, 1918      |
| <b>Iowa:</b>      |                   |                    |
| Cedar Falls...    | March 17, 1876    | September 6, 1876  |
| <b>Michigan:</b>  |                   |                    |
| Ypsilanti.....    | March 28, 1849    | March 29, 1853     |
| Mount Pleasant    | June 3, 1895      | June 3, 1895       |
| Marquette.....    | April 28, 1899    | September 19, 1899 |
| Kalamazoo.....    | May 27, 1903      | June 27, 1904      |
| <b>Minnesota:</b> |                   |                    |
| Winona.....       | August 2, 1858    | September 3, 1860  |
| Mankato.....      | July 1, 1866      | October 7, 1868    |
| St. Cloud.....    | July 1, 1866      | September 15, 1869 |
| Moorhead.....     | March 5, 1885     | August 29, 1888    |
| Duluth.....       | April 2, 1895     | September, 1902    |
| Bemidji.....      | April 19, 1913    | June 23, 1919      |
| <b>Missouri:</b>  |                   |                    |
| Kirksville....    | March 19, 1870    | January 2, 1871    |
| Warrensburg...    | March 19, 1870    | May 10, 1871       |
| Cape Girardeau    | March 22, 1873    | December 10, 1873  |
| Springfield...    | March 25, 1905    | June 13, 1906      |
| Maryville.....    | March 17, 1905    | June 11, 1906      |
| <b>Ohio:</b>      |                   |                    |
| Athens.....       | March 12, 1902    | September 9, 1902  |
| Oxford.....       | March 12, 1902    | September 10, 1902 |
| Bowling Green.    | May 19, 1910      | September 15, 1914 |
| Kent.....         | May 19, 1910      | May 19, 1913       |
| <b>Wisconsin:</b> |                   |                    |
| Platteville...    | April 12, 1866    | October 9, 1866    |
| Whitewater...     | April 12, 1866    | April 22, 1868     |
| Oshkosh.....      | April 12, 1866    | September 12, 1871 |
| River Falls...    | April 12, 1866    | September 7, 1875  |
| Milwaukee.....    | March 15, 1880    | September 14, 1885 |
| Stevens Point.    | April 8, 1885     | September 17, 1894 |
| Superior.....     | April 23, 1891    | September 5, 1896  |
| La Crosse.....    | April 26, 1905    | September 7, 1909  |
| Eau Claire....    | June 15, 1909     | September 18, 1917 |

<sup>a</sup>Data were secured from the following sources: state laws, school catalogues, historical sketches, and reports of chief state school officers.

been established prior to 1865, and only five were established between 1875 and 1895. In the decade from 1895 to 1905 nine schools were established, and in the next decade, seven. It is obvious, therefore, that the establishment of normal schools followed no set pattern. The explanation for this may be found in part in the policies of the various states for the establishment of normal schools.

From the outset four states adopted the policy of the establishment of a system of normal schools--Minnesota, Missouri, Wisconsin, and Ohio. Effecting this policy on the part of three of the states accounts for the establishment of nine of the eleven normal schools in the decade from 1865 to 1875. Minnesota established two schools in that decade, Missouri, three, and Wisconsin, four.

The early practices of Michigan, Illinois, Indiana, and Iowa<sup>1</sup> indicate that each of these states accepted the policy of depending upon a single normal school to supply its need of professionally educated teachers. In 1869 Illinois yielded to the pressure for a second normal school, but not until 1895 did it become certain that Illinois would establish a system of normal schools. In 1895 Michigan made provision for a second normal school and thereby set the precedent for the later establishment of two additional normal schools to take care of the education of teachers for the northern and western parts of the state.

The change in the policy of Illinois and of Michigan accounts for the establishment of six of the nine normal schools in the decade from 1895 to 1905. The establishment of the other

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<sup>1</sup>An exception must be made for Iowa if the unsuccessful attempt to establish three normal schools in its early educational history is considered.

three normal schools in that decade and of the eight additional schools in subsequent years is accounted for by the attempts of the various states to round out their respective systems of normal schools. Iowa alone remained steadfast to the original policy of a single normal school.

### Function of Normal Schools

Examination of the legislative enactments creating normal schools, together with their interpretations by chief state school officers, shows the function of the institutions. Some of the purposes are stated specifically, others are only implied. Aims are revealed also in school catalogues.

The Michigan law establishing a state normal school specified its functions in section one.

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the State of Michigan, That a State Normal School be established, the exclusive purposes of which shall be the instruction of persons, both male and female, in the art of teaching, and in all the various branches that pertain to a good common school education; also, to give instructions in the mechanic arts, and in the arts of husbandry and agricultural chemistry, in the fundamental laws of the United States, and in what regards the rights and duties of citizens.<sup>1</sup>

At the time, Michigan had no public-school facilities between the district school and the state university. The branches of the university had been discontinued, the high schools had not been definitely planned, and the union school law had just been enacted. The branches had contemplated giving instruction in industrial or agricultural training. The normal school, which was in reality a substitute for the branches and which was the only state school of the same grade as the branches was to be a teachers' school, a farmers' school, and an academy all in one.<sup>2</sup> The

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<sup>1</sup>Public Acts of the Legislature of Michigan, 1849, No. 138.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1881, p. 85.

superintendent of public instruction remarked in 1881 that no considerable effort was made at the Normal school to meet the demands of an agricultural college,<sup>1</sup> since an agricultural college had been established by the legislature in 1855.

By 1876 sentiment had definitely shifted in favor of more strictly professional work. The normal-school visitors reported that in their judgment the unique object of the school was the preparation of teachers for more efficient work in the public schools. In view of the paucity of good teachers they felt it a matter of regret that there had been diversion from an unmistakable line of duty.<sup>2</sup> In 1878 the school visitors expressed the opinion that academic work should be subordinated to professional inasmuch as the number of graded and high schools in the state had noticeably increased and inasmuch as the first object of the normal school was, as the name implied, instruction in the art of teaching.<sup>3</sup> State Superintendent Gower believed that the normal school was deficient in both the quantity and the quality of its professional work and that it was failing to do for the public schools all that rightfully should be expected of it. The following year Gower asserted that the time had come when the common school course was the principal feature of the school, and its leading purpose was to prepare teachers for the district schools.<sup>4</sup> The committee of visitors in 1883 in no uncertain terms set forth their opinions:

The best interests of education in the State, as it seems to us, demand that the Normal School shall send forth from its doors the greatest possible number of trained teachers. Not to the production of high scholarship, but to the selection of the fit from the unfit, to the acquainting of its pupil-teachers with the best methods in instruction, and to the observation of these at work in charge of the schools, should the strength of the Normal School be devoted.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.    <sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1876, p. 128.    <sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1878, p. 35.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1879, p. 37.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1883, p. 137.



Further examination of the Michigan laws reveals dissimilarity in purpose for which the several schools were established. The law creating the school at Mount Pleasant provided: "That a normal school for the preparation and training of persons for teaching in the rural district schools and the primary departments of the graded schools of the State . . . be established."<sup>1</sup> That identical purpose was given also for the school at Kalamazoo.<sup>2</sup> The law creating the school at Marquette provided: "That a normal school shall be located at Marquette . . . for the purpose of instructing persons in the several branches pertaining to a public school education, and in the science and the art of teaching the same."<sup>3</sup>

The law creating the Illinois State Normal University stated its function in section four:

The object of the said normal university shall be to qualify teachers for the common schools of this state, by imparting instruction in the art of teaching, in all branches of study which pertain to a common school education, in the elements of the natural sciences, including agricultural chemistry, animal and vegetable physiology, in the fundamental laws of the United States and of the state of Illinois in regard to the rights and duties of citizens, and such other studies as the board of education may from time to time prescribe.<sup>4</sup>

That the qualification of teachers for the common schools would require instruction in the art of teaching and in all branches of study pertaining to a common-school education is assumed; but mandatory instruction in the natural sciences, which included agricultural chemistry and animal and plant physiology, seems unusual in the normal-school course of study. The prescription is explained perhaps by the fact that the establishment of the normal school necessitated compromise with a faction in the

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<sup>1</sup>Public Acts of Michigan, 1895, p. 560.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1903, p. 202.      <sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1899, p. 84.

<sup>4</sup>Laws of the State of Illinois, 1857, p. 299.

state favoring the establishment of an agricultural school.<sup>1</sup> The last phrase of the act was sufficiently flexible to allow for future demands on the institution. The function prescribed in the act was carried into the state system as other schools were established.

In 1884 the superintendent of public instruction interpreted the function of the normal school in the statement that "a normal school has no legitimate purpose but to fit its pupils to teach and to manage schools; nothing is proper to be done in such a school which does not tend directly to this result."<sup>2</sup> But he contended that with a given body of students anything essential in their preparation to teach was legitimate work in the normal school. The principle operated throughout normal-school history in Illinois.

The act that created the first normal school in Minnesota stipulated: "There shall be established within five years . . . . an institution to educate and prepare teachers for teaching in the common schools of this State."<sup>3</sup> The function of the first school became the function of the subsequent normal schools in the state. From the outset, the schools in Minnesota emphasized in theory if not always in practice their professional character.

The report of the State Normal Board, July 31, 1884, contained the following statements:

The board is fully aware that our Normal schools are not institutions designed to afford facilities to young men and women to acquire an academic education which shall fit them to become qualified for the general business of life. . . . . The board fully understands that the object had in view by

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1888, p. 56.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1884, p. 56.

<sup>3</sup>General Statutes of the State of Minnesota, 1858, p. 261.

the legislature in establishing our Normal Schools was to make them purely professional or technical schools . . . . for the sole purpose of supplying well-qualified teachers for the common schools of our own State.<sup>1</sup>

The board explained why the theory had not been fully translated into practice. The normal schools had been established when the state was young, when schools were few and of inferior quality, when prospective teachers had no facilities for preparing themselves for the normal school proper, and when practically all entering students needed extensive drill in the common-school branches. The normal school had been obliged to adjust itself to primitive conditions. Two paragraphs are quoted to show evolution of function in the normal schools in Minnesota.

The primary purpose and fundamental aim of these schools is and has been the training of teachers for the elementary schools of the state. This training to be effective, however, must rest upon the professional education and scholarship of the teacher, so that the graduate when he enters upon his work will be prepared to teach with skill . . . . and with increasing insight into the specific problems involved.

With this purpose in view the policy of the board has been to progressively broaden the courses of study, until they touch the various phases of the common life of all the people, and to graduate students who have a respectable knowledge of the requirements and aspirations of their fellowmen and who in their teaching vocation become helpful and efficient instructors of the youth of the state.<sup>2</sup>

The legislature of Indiana left no doubt as to what the function of the normal school in that state was. Section one of the act of 1865 stipulated that "the object . . . . shall be the preparation of teachers for teaching in the common schools of Indiana."<sup>3</sup> From the outset the normal school was to be purely professional in character.

In 1865 the superintendent of public instruction maintained

<sup>1</sup>Report of the State Normal Board, 1884, p. 8.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Education of the State of Minnesota, 1914-15, p. 19.

<sup>3</sup>Laws of the State of Indiana, 1865, p. 140.

that just as there is a theory and a practice in medicine and in law, so there is the same in education, and teachers need professional preparation quite as much as does the doctor, the lawyer, or any other professional man.<sup>1</sup> He felt that one error fatal to pedagogical advancement had been the belief that mere knowledge of a science carried with it the ability to teach that science.

In his report for 1887-88 the superintendent of public instruction referred to the normal school as an institution designed for the professional education of teachers and not a school for general scholarship.<sup>2</sup> He contended that the primary object was to confer upon prospective teachers that professional knowledge and skill in the field of education which the medical school and the law school lead their students to acquire in the realms of medicine and law.<sup>3</sup> He added that to fulfill the spirit of the law that created it, the normal school must prepare teachers for all types of public schools, and that preparation of teachers must include thorough knowledge of the common-school subjects, general culture, and professional instruction in the theory and art of teaching.

The Wisconsin law of 1866 in accordance with which the first four normal schools of that state were established specified in section four that normal schools should be established ". . . the exclusive purpose of which shall be instruction and training of persons both male and female, in the theory and art of teaching in all the various branches that pertain to a good common school education."<sup>4</sup> Instruction was to be given in agricultural chemis-

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana, 1865, p. 46.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1887-88, p. 530.      <sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Laws of Wisconsin, 1866, p. 162.

try, in the arts of husbandry, in the mechanic arts, in the fundamental laws of the United States, and in the rights and duties of citizens. It is to be noted that the purpose follows closely that of the schools in both Michigan and Illinois, established several years previously. Just as in those states, the normal schools of Wisconsin were a combination of technical school, professional school, and academy. No specific purpose was given for any other of the Wisconsin normal schools established by subsequent legislation.

The law for the establishment of normal schools in Missouri did not state their function, but section ten of the act says: "Every applicant for admission shall undergo examinations . . . . prescribed by the board, and they may require the applicant to sign and file with the secretary of the board a declaration of intention to follow . . . . teaching in the public schools of the State."<sup>1</sup> The law creating the third normal school of Missouri empowered the board to grant diplomas in testimony of scholarship and ability to teach.<sup>2</sup> A dual purpose is at least implied. In his report for the public schools of Missouri in 1880 the superintendent of common schools asserted: "A normal school is a school established for the training of teachers. Its aims are specific and professional. The specific object is to give culture and learning, not for the benefit of the student but that it may be used in the education of the masses."<sup>3</sup> In 1890 the state superintendent expressed an opinion more or less typical of the attitude in the various Middle States:

<sup>1</sup>Acts of the General Assembly of Missouri, 1870, p. 136.

<sup>2</sup>Laws of the State of Missouri, 1873, p. 81.

<sup>3</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Common Schools of the State of Missouri, 1880, p. 159.



The normal school in every system of education has a mission peculiarly its own. It sustains a relation auxiliary to the other institutions of the system to which it belongs, and its business is not to do their work, but to supply them as far as possible with teachers of superior training. When it steps aside from this plain pathway and assumes the role of university or college, it loses its distinctive character and is no longer entitled to respect as a normal school.

Public sentiment holds every such school responsible not only for the professional training, but also for the scholarship of its graduates. It is therefore impelled in self-defense to look after both these qualifications. Consequently, every Normal school should have a thoroughly equipped academic department . . . . academic work properly belongs to the professional school, but such work should always be confined to legitimate subjects and should have a clearly professional aim.<sup>1</sup>

The Iowa law expressed in a single sentence the purpose of the school at Cedar Falls: "A school for the special instruction and training of teachers for the common schools of this state is hereby established at Cedar Falls, in Black Hawk County."<sup>2</sup>

In his report for 1878-79 the principal of the institution remarked that "the work from the very first entrance of the student is wholly with the idea of teaching."<sup>3</sup> Students were pledged to teach two years in the state; and in order to receive the state diploma, graduates had to submit to the secretary of the board evidence that they had met the teaching requirements.<sup>4</sup> In succeeding years, however, the purpose veered from the traditional aim. J. H. Trewin, president of the state board of education wrote in 1912:

The Iowa State Normal School was established in the early seventies to train teachers for the common schools, and for many years it was, strictly speaking, a normal school. Lately it became ambitious to extend its field to the granting of

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1890, pp. 117-18.

<sup>2</sup>Iowa Acts, 1876, p. 118.

<sup>3</sup>Second Biennial Report of the Normal School at Cedar Falls, 1878-79, p. 8.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

collegiate degrees and it has gone even to the extent of offering graduate work. The legislative committee . . . . severally criticized this branching out on the part of the normal school as a direct subversion of the real purpose for which this institution was founded. . . . in thus developing itself into a college, the normal school could but neglect the real work for which it was established.<sup>1</sup>

The enactments of Ohio specified that the state normal schools should be so located as to afford the best opportunity possible for all the people to obtain the benefits and advantages to be derived from teachers trained both theoretically and practically.<sup>2</sup> In view of the fact that schools were established in Ohio relatively late in normal-school history, it may be assumed that the state profited by the practices carried on in the other Middle States.

The preceding brief account of the function of normal schools shows that whatever other purpose those schools may have had the education of teachers for the common schools was their primary responsibility.

#### Administration of Normal Schools

The laws that created the various normal schools in the eight states made provisions also for their administration. That responsibility was invariably placed in a governing board. Data concerning the nature and the general constitution of those boards are presented in Table 6.

Inspection of the table shows that boards were designated by different titles, such as regents, trustees, and directors. Ohio and Missouri had boards of control; that is, a separate board administered each normal school. Although the table shows the schools of Illinois under direction of a single board that was true

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the State Board of Education of Iowa, 1912, p.10.

<sup>2</sup>Ohio Legislative Acts, 1910, p. 320.

only after 1917. In 1917 the legislature enacted the law known as the Civil Administration Code for the consolidation of the state agencies under direction of the governor of the state.<sup>1</sup>

TABLE 6

BOARDS OF CONTROL FOR NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE MIDDLE STATES<sup>a</sup>

| State      | Title              | Members | Term in Years | Appointed by | Compensation                |
|------------|--------------------|---------|---------------|--------------|-----------------------------|
| Illinois.. | Board of Trustees  | 5       | 6             | Governor     | Necessary expenses          |
| Indiana... | Board of Trustees  | 4       | 4             | Governor     | \$5 per day and expenses    |
| Iowa.....  | Board of Directors | 6       | 6             | Governor     | Necessary expenses          |
| Michigan.. | Board of Education | 6       | 6             | Governor     | \$2 per day and expenses    |
| Minnesota. | State Normal Board | 9       | 4             | Governor     | Necessary expenses          |
| Missouri.. | Boards of Regents  | 7       | 6             | Governor     | 6-cent mileage and expenses |
| Ohio.....  | Boards of Trustees | 5       | 5             | Governor     | Reasonable expenses         |
| Wisconsin. | Board of Regents   | 11      | 5             | Governor     | Expenses                    |

<sup>a</sup>Data were secured from the laws providing for the administrative control of state normal schools.

One of the functions of the board created by the law was to manage the five state normal schools previously administered by separate boards. With the exception, then, of Ohio and Missouri the normal schools in the Middle States were controlled by a single board appointed by the governor of the state for a specified term. The number of board members ranged from four to eleven; their terms of office ranged from four to six years. In each of the eight states board members were allowed necessary expenses. Indiana

<sup>1</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1918, p. 409.

and Michigan paid their members salaries; Missouri allowed mileage and expenses.

When the Indiana State Normal Schools was established in 1865, a board of four trustees was created for its management.<sup>1</sup> By enactment of the legislature in 1873 the State Board of Education was empowered to appoint annually a board of visitors to inspect the condition of the state normal school.<sup>2</sup> In body or one by one the board of visitors were to visit the school at least once each term and at the close of the academic year report to the board of trustees. Thus the State Board of Education exercised supervisory control over the normal school as a part of the system of education in the state.

Management of the Iowa State Normal School was vested in a board of six members, no two of whom might be from the same county.<sup>3</sup> In 1909 the legislature abolished both the board of regents for the university and the board of trustees for the normal school; they then created a board of education to consist of nine members not more than any five of whom could be of the same political party. The board was to administer the state university at Iowa City, the state college of agriculture and mechanic arts at Ames, and the state normal school at Cedar Falls.<sup>4</sup>

The act of Michigan approved March 28, 1849, placed the normal school in charge of a board of education of three members to be appointed by the governor with the approval of the senate.<sup>5</sup>

<sup>1</sup>Laws of Indiana, 1865, p. 140.

<sup>2</sup>Indiana Rev. Sts, 1881, sec. 4555.

<sup>3</sup>Iowa Laws, 1876, p. 118.

<sup>4</sup>Acts and Joint Resolutions of the General Assembly of the State of Iowa, 1909, p. 167.

<sup>5</sup>Primary School Law of Michigan, 1852, No. 138.

The law provided that once the school had begun operation it should be visited monthly by a representative of the board of education to examine thoroughly into the affairs of the institution. The visitor was to report to the governor and to the superintendent of public instruction. Each member of the board was expected to visit the school at least once in three months.

The constitution of Michigan (1850) provided for a board of four members for the management of the normal schools, three of whom should be elected by the people for a term of six years.<sup>1</sup> The superintendent of public instruction was ex officio the fourth member. In 1850 the legislature increased the number of board members to six, three of whom were to be appointed by the governor by and with the advice and consent of both branches of the legislature.<sup>2</sup>

In 1901 the State Board of Education of Michigan organized what is known as the normal executive council.<sup>3</sup> The president of the Michigan State Normal College<sup>4</sup> was made chairman and the several normal-school principals were made members. The function of the council was to advise the state board of education relative to the various needs of the normal schools and thus to share with the board the administration of the normal-school system. The President of Michigan State Normal College had general supervisory control and each normal-school principal had supervisory control of his particular school.

<sup>1</sup>Constitution of the State of Michigan, 1850.

<sup>2</sup>Michigan Laws, 1850, No. 139.

<sup>3</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1903, p. 32.

<sup>4</sup>Public Acts of Michigan, 1899, p. 86. By this law Michigan State Normal School became Michigan State Normal College.



The act of Minnesota approved August 2, 1858, empowered the governor to appoint six electors, one from each judicial district, who would constitute the State Normal Board of Instruction.<sup>1</sup> The law authorized the board annually to appoint for each normal school a prudential committee consisting of three members one of whom should be a member of the board. The committees were to have general oversight and management of the prudential affairs of the several schools, subject to the order of the board to whom the committees were to make detailed reports concerning the conditions and the wants of the normal schools. The act provided that the normal directors in any normal-school district, together with the state superintendent, should be special visitors to the normal school. In order to ascertain the mode of instruction and the progress of the pupils as well as to promote the best welfare of the institution and of the common schools of the state, the special visitors were to visit the normal schools at least two days of each session.

The law of 1858 specified that six electors, one from each judicial district, should be appointed by the governor. By law the number of directors was changed in 1868 to seven.<sup>2</sup> The member residing at the location of each normal school was to receive and disburse under direction of the board the money accruing in any manner to the school.<sup>3</sup> The principal of the normal school was required to make an annual report to the board setting forth general statistics, and containing suggestions conducive to the welfare of the school. In 1889 by law the number of normal-school directors was increased to eight.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>General Laws of the State of Minnesota, 1858, p. 462.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1868, p. 7.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1873, p. 89.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1889, p. 462.

The act that established the first normal school in Missouri provided a board of regents of seven members. Three were to be members of the State Board of Education. The governor was to appoint the four additional regents, two from each normal district.<sup>1</sup> Four years later a similar board was created for the second state normal school. Seven members were to be appointed for a term of six years and six of the seven were to be residents of the district for which they were appointed. The law designated the state superintendent ex officio a member of each board of regents.<sup>2</sup> Throughout normal-school history in Missouri, each normal school was administered by its own board of regents.

The Wisconsin law of 1876 vested the administration of normal schools in a board of regents consisting of eleven members.<sup>3</sup> The governor of the state and the superintendent of public instruction were to be members ex officio. The other nine members were to be appointed by the governor for the term of three years. State Superintendent William C. Whitford reported in 1879 that the normal schools of the state were in charge of a board of regents who were men of high character and fine attainment, and who were exercising careful and thorough supervision over the schools.<sup>4</sup> In order to make supervision the more constant, it had been the practice of the board to appoint as a member of the board some suitable person residing at the place where each normal school was located, whose special duty it was to exercise care over that particular institution. Other members of the board made occasional

<sup>1</sup>Laws of Missouri, 1870, p. 135.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1874, p. 143.

<sup>3</sup>Laws of Wisconsin, 1876, p. 19.

<sup>4</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1900, p. 225.

visits and examined into the condition and the progress of the school.

The legislature in 1899 did not change the number of regents, but increased the term of office from three to five years.<sup>1</sup> They enacted that not more than one regent might reside in any one congressional district, unless by chance two schools should happen to be located in the same district. The law of 1905 amended the law of 1899 so that there was created a board of eleven regents to have the management of the existing normal schools and the control of any other schools that might later be established.<sup>2</sup> Ten of the regents were to be appointed, at least one of whom should be a woman. The state superintendent was a member ex officio.

The different laws of the states have been analyzed in detail in order to determine the various duties allocated to the state board of control for normal schools. Twenty-four different powers were disclosed. Table 7 presents the data for each of the eight states. Inspection of the table shows that the first eleven powers listed were common to five or more of the eight states. Of the remaining thirteen powers, none were common to more than any three states. Undoubtedly this interpretation should be considered relative, not absolute, in a discussion of normal-school administration. It is very probable that most of the powers listed actually operated in most of the states, though not as functions allocated to the boards of management. For example, all the states had admission requirements for the normal schools, but not all the states empowered the normal-school boards to set up those standards. Most of the states exacted from students a pledge to teach for a specified term, but not all boards of normal schools were empowered to prescribe those terms.

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<sup>1</sup>Laws of Wisconsin, 1899, p. 101.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1905, p. 244.

TABLE 7

POWERS ALLOCATED TO NORMAL-SCHOOL BOARDS  
IN THE MIDDLE STATES<sup>a</sup>

| Powers                                           | Ill. | Ind. | Iowa | Mich. | Minn. | Mo. | Ohio | Wis. |
|--------------------------------------------------|------|------|------|-------|-------|-----|------|------|
| Purchase site, etc.                              | x    | x    | x    | x     | x     | x   | x    | x    |
| Make rules and by-laws.....                      | x    | x    | x    | x     | x     | x   | x    | x    |
| Appoint and dismiss instructors                  | x    | x    | x    | x     | x     | x   | x    | x    |
| Fix salaries and duties.....                     | x    | x    | x    | x     | x     | x   | x    | x    |
| Prescribe course of study.....                   | x    | x    | x    | x     | x     | x   | x    | x    |
| Organize model school.....                       | x    | x    | x    | x     | x     | x   | x    | x    |
| Make annual or biennial report...                | x    | x    | x    | x     | x     | x   | x    | x    |
| Confer certificates.....                         | x    | x    | x    | x     | x     | x   | x    | x    |
| Confer diplomas...                               | x    | x    | x    | x     | x     | x   | x    | x    |
| Award degrees.....                               | x    | x    | x    | x     | x     | x   | x    | x    |
| Prescribe texts...                               | x    | ...  | ...  | x     | ...   | x   | x    | x    |
| Prescribe admission standards..                  | ...  | ...  | x    | ...   | x     | x   | ...  | ...  |
| Prescribe examinations.....                      | ...  | ...  | ...  | x     | ...   | x   | ...  | x    |
| Exact pledge to teach.....                       | ...  | ...  | x    | ...   | x     | ... | ...  | ...  |
| Exact evidence of moral character.               | ...  | ...  | x    | ...   | ...   | ... | ...  | ...  |
| Exact contingent fee.....                        | ...  | ...  | x    | ...   | x     | ... | ...  | ...  |
| Exact report of normal-school principal.....     | ...  | ...  | ...  | ...   | x     | ... | ...  | ...  |
| Arrange student board and lodging.....           | ...  | ...  | x    | ...   | ...   | ... | ...  | ...  |
| Employ agents to conduct institutes.....         | ...  | ...  | ...  | ...   | ...   | ... | ...  | x    |
| Employ state purchasing agent...                 | ...  | ...  | ...  | ...   | x     | ... | ...  | ...  |
| Appoint board of visitors.....                   | ...  | x    | ...  | x     | x     | ... | ...  | ...  |
| Appoint prudential committee.....                | ...  | ...  | ...  | ...   | x     | ... | ...  | ...  |
| Provide special academic instruction.....        | x    | ...  | ...  | x     | ...   | ... | x    | x    |
| Act freely in any way for the good of the school | ...  | ...  | x    | ...   | ...   | ... | ...  | ...  |

<sup>a</sup>Data were obtained from the laws creating the normal schools in the Middle States.

## Summary

The establishment of normal schools in the Middle States extended over a period of sixty-one years. Thirteen schools were established between 1857 and 1870; three, between 1871 and 1880; three, between 1881 and 1890; seven, between 1891 and 1900; eight, between 1901 and 1910; and two, between 1911 and 1918. By 1876 at least one normal school had been established in each of the states except Ohio. No set pattern had been followed. Iowa had established one school; Indiana, two. The other states each had organized a system of normal schools ranging in number from four to nine.

The primary aim of the normal schools was to prepare teachers for the common schools; secondary aims were to give prospective teachers a liberal education and to instruct them in the rights and duties of citizenship.

Normal schools in the Middle States were administered by legalized boards variously termed board of trustees, board of directors, board of education, board of regents, and state normal-school board. In Illinois until 1917, in Iowa, in Ohio, and in Missouri each normal school had its own board of management. In Indiana, in Michigan, in Minnesota, and in Wisconsin, a single board administered the system of normal schools. Because many phases of the laws were permissive rather than mandatory, the normal schools were operated in accordance with liberal interpretations of the law.



## CHAPTER IX

### BASES FOR ADMITTING STUDENTS TO NORMAL SCHOOLS

Students were admitted to normal schools according to regulations imposed either by the legislatures or by legally authorized boards of control. Analyses of the laws and of the reports dealing with the conduct of the normal schools reveal the following admission requirements: (1) signing the pledge to teach; (2) giving evidence of good moral character; (3) attaining a minimum age as a guarantee of maturity; (4) receiving official appointment; (5) passing successfully entrance examinations; (6) completing prescribed work in preparatory departments; (7) giving evidence of completed high-school work; (8) presenting teaching certificates; and (9) presenting college credits. The extent to which these conditions operating in combination affected the acceptance or the rejection of candidates depended upon local circumstances and upon educational development in the individual states.

#### Pledge to Teach

The laws that created the normal schools in Indiana and Iowa required students to pledge themselves to teach in the public schools. Indiana compelled the applicant to sign and file with the principal a written pledge to teach so far as might be practicable in the common schools of Indiana for a period equal to twice the time spent as a pupil in the normal school.<sup>1</sup> Iowa required all pupils upon their admission to sign in good faith a statement

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<sup>1</sup>Laws of Indiana, 1865, chap. 36, sec. 10.

of their intention to follow the business of teaching in the schools of the state.<sup>1</sup>

The legislatures of five of the states gave the administrative boards discretionary powers relative to the pledge to teach. The law of Michigan specified that the applicant should, before admission, sign a declaration of intention to follow the business of teaching primary schools.<sup>2</sup> Candidates might be admitted without signing the pledge on such terms as the board of education might prescribe. The law of Illinois permitted the board of trustees to exact tuition from the candidate who did not sign and file with the secretary of the board a declaration that he would teach in the public schools.<sup>3</sup> In Minnesota there should be no tuition charge for persons who would sacredly engage to become teachers of the public schools of the state for such times and on such conditions as the state normal board might prescribe.<sup>4</sup> In Wisconsin the board of regents of normal schools might at their discretion require applicants who did not sign and file with the board of regents a declaration of their intention to teach common schools, to pay or secure to be paid such fees for tuition as to the board might seem reasonable.<sup>5</sup> The boards of regents in Missouri could require the applicant to sign and file with the secretary a declaration of intention to follow the business of teaching public schools.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Acts and Resolutions of the State of Iowa, 1876, p. 119.

<sup>2</sup>Acts of the Legislature of the State of Michigan, 1849, No. 138.

<sup>3</sup>Laws of the State of Illinois, 1857, p. 300.

<sup>4</sup>General Laws of Minnesota, 1858, p. 263.

<sup>5</sup>General Laws of Wisconsin, 1866, p. 164.

<sup>6</sup>Laws of Missouri, 1879, p. 136.

The character of the pledge, or declaration as it was sometimes called, is illustrated by the pledges for Michigan, Minnesota, and Wisconsin.

We, the subscribers, do hereby declare that it is our intention to devote ourselves to the business of teaching in the schools of this State, and that our object in resorting to this Normal School, is the better to prepare ourselves for the discharge of this important duty.<sup>1</sup>

I hereby declare my intention to teach in the public schools of Minnesota for at least two years; and that it is my object in resorting to this Normal School to qualify myself more thoroughly for this duty.<sup>2</sup>

I, \_\_\_\_\_ do hereby declare that my purpose in entering the state normal school is to fit myself for the profession of teaching, and that it is my intention to engage in teaching in the schools of this state.<sup>3</sup>

Requirement of the students' pledge to teach was a unique practice among educational institutions, and a practice undoubtedly inaugurated to insure the preparation of as many teachers as the normal schools could produce with their limited facilities. Furthermore, requiring students to pledge themselves to teach for a period after graduation partially insured the restriction of the normal schools to their special and original function. Data are not available as to when the states discontinued the regulation. In Minnesota the pledge to teach was not discontinued until 1933 when the legislature required tuition of all students enrolling in the teachers' colleges.<sup>4</sup>

#### Good Moral Character

For admission to any normal school in Michigan, Indiana,

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1855-56, p. 371.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the State Normal Board of Minnesota, 1861, p. 6.

<sup>3</sup>Annual Report of the Regents of Normal Schools of Wisconsin, 1866, p. 618.

<sup>4</sup>Minnesota Session Laws, 1933, chap. 294, p. 385.

Wisconsin, and Iowa candidates had to present evidence of good moral character and aptitude for teaching. Michigan specified by law that if it was found that any applicant was not a person of good moral character or if he would not make an apt and good teacher, he should be rejected.<sup>1</sup> Of the four legal requirements for admission to the Indiana State Normal School satisfactory evidence of undoubted moral character was one.<sup>2</sup> The law also exacted a high standard of christian morality to be observed and in so far as possible inculcated in the minds of students; it was stated explicitly, however, that no religious sectarianism might be taught. The Wisconsin law stated that if it was found that a normal-school candidate was not a person of good moral character or would not make a good teacher he should be rejected.<sup>3</sup> In Iowa the law specified that the board of directors should exact evidence of good character.<sup>4</sup>

The state normal board of Minnesota adopted a resolution that any candidate having presented satisfactory testimonials of good moral character and natural adaptation for teaching would be admitted to all the privileges of the state normal schools.<sup>5</sup> Applicants seeking admission for the first time to the Second District Normal School of Missouri were in 1898 required to submit evidence of good moral character.<sup>6</sup> The catalogue of the institution for that year stated that a letter from one's pastor, or from

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<sup>1</sup>Acts of the Legislature of the State of Michigan, 1849,  
No. 138.

<sup>2</sup>Laws of Indiana, 1865, p. 141.

<sup>3</sup>General Laws of Wisconsin, 1866, p. 164.

<sup>4</sup>Acts and Resolutions of the State of Iowa, 1876, p. 119.

<sup>5</sup>First Annual Report of the State Normal Board, 1860, p. 6.

<sup>6</sup>Annual Catalogue of the Second District Normal School of Missouri, 1898-1900, p. 11.

a county commissioner, or from some other well-known person was sufficient. The same requisite prevailed for the school as late as 1904-05.<sup>1</sup> Perhaps there was more or less uniformity in practice among the Missouri normal schools in this respect; in 1903 applicants applying for the first time for admission to the First District Normal School were required to present testimonials from persons of known integrity.<sup>2</sup>

No data are available to show either the extent to which applicants were rejected on the basis of moral character or what means other than certificates were used to determine candidates' fitness. Nor do the records show how long the states continued this regulation. It may be assumed that evidence of good character was exacted during the greater part of normal-school history just as was the pledge to teach.

#### Minimum Age

By fixing the age limit for entrance, the states took precaution against admitting students of too little maturity. The Michigan board of education set the limit at 18 for males and at 16 for females.<sup>3</sup> The regulation could be suspended at the discretion of the principal in favor of those under the required age, provided that they should give evidence of sufficient maturity and advancement to do satisfactory work. Students who expected to study an ancient or a modern language were received at an earlier age to compensate for the lengthened course.

The state normal board of Minnesota did not differentiate

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1904-05, p. 21.

<sup>2</sup>Bulletin of the First District Normal School of Missouri, 1903, p. 25.

<sup>3</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1859, pp. 134-35.



between males and females, but required all applicants to be at least 16 years old.<sup>1</sup> In Wisconsin the normal board of regents designated that candidates must be at least 16 years old.<sup>2</sup> The Indiana legislature set the age at 18 for males and at 16 for females.<sup>3</sup> The principals of the three normal schools in Missouri in 1875 recommended to their respective boards of regents that 14 years be the minimum age for admitting students.<sup>4</sup> That minimum was later changed to 16 for males and 15 for females, at least for the First District Normal School.<sup>5</sup> In Iowa the board of directors placed the minimum at 17 for males, but made no mention of the age minimum for females.<sup>6</sup> In Illinois the boards of trustees set the minimum for males at 17 and for females at 16.<sup>7</sup>

Usually the minimum age of entrance to the normal schools coincided with the average age at which the student completed his preparatory work. Most of the normal schools admitted mature students of teaching experience even though they could not meet the required academic standards. Usually these students were twenty-one or more years old. Once the applicant had received advanced academic preparation, chronological age became less important as an index to social and intellectual maturity than it had been at

<sup>1</sup>Report of the State Normal Board, 1861, p. 12.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Wisconsin, 1868, p. 193.

<sup>3</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana, 1871-72, p. 61.

<sup>4</sup>Report of the Public Schools of the State of Missouri, 1877, p. 79.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1884, p. 91.

<sup>6</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Iowa, 1883-85, p. 21.

<sup>7</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1892, p. 57.

the outset. In fact, not much attention was paid to the age of students who could show ability to pursue the work of the normal school.

### Official Appointment

The laws of Michigan, Illinois, and Iowa permitted each county and each normal district gratuitous instruction for pupils in specific ratio. Michigan provided that the counties might send pupils in the ratio to which they were entitled to representatives in the legislature, the number not to exceed three times the number of representatives.<sup>1</sup> Early in the history of the school at Ypsilanti the policy was inaugurated of admitting a certain number of applicants by appointment through members of the legislature, each appointment good for one year.<sup>2</sup>

In Illinois selections were based on county divisions and representative districts; each county was allowed gratuitous instruction for one pupil and each district, for a number equal to the number of representatives for the district.<sup>3</sup> In 1861 the law was amended making the representation two from each county.<sup>4</sup> The total number of members of the General Assembly was two hundred four and there were one hundred two counties in the state. The whole number possible by appointment was four hundred eight.

In Iowa the board of directors was to provide admission from the several counties in proportion to their respective population and upon appointment by county boards or supervisors.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Acts of the Legislature of the State of Michigan, 1849,  
No. 138.

<sup>2</sup>Yearbook of the Michigan State Normal School, 1896-97.

<sup>3</sup>Laws of Illinois, 1857, p. 300.

<sup>4</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1892, p. 57.

<sup>5</sup>Acts and Resolutions of the State of Iowa, 1876, pp. 119-

There was no limit as to the number that might be received from any county.

The managing boards in Minnesota and in Wisconsin allotted students according to geographical area. In Minnesota the state normal board specified that two pupils could be received from each senatorial district in existence at the time the legislation was enacted.<sup>1</sup> Where two counties comprised a senatorial district, the applicants from the two counties should have preference in order of application. If an applicant were rejected, the next candidate in point of time from the same district should be in order of application. In Wisconsin by regulation of the board of regents of normal schools each assembly district was entitled to six representatives in the normal school.<sup>2</sup> Later that number was increased to eight.<sup>3</sup> Candidates for appointment were to be nominated by the county superintendent; credentials were then to be sent to the principal of the school where admission was sought; and upon receipt of the credentials by the principal the candidate was examined under direction of the principal in the branches required by law for a third-grade certificate, except history and the theory and practice of teaching. If he passed successfully, he was formally admitted to the normal school by presenting evidence as the principal might require of good health and good moral character, and by subscribing to the declaration to teach.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>First Annual Report of the State Normal Board, 1860, p.6.

<sup>2</sup>Governor's Message and Accompanying Documents of the State of Wisconsin, 1867, p. 618.

<sup>3</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Wisconsin, 1876, p. 225.

<sup>4</sup>Annual Report of the Board of Regents of Normal Schools of Wisconsin, 1866, p. 618.

The purpose of allotting students according to geographical distribution was probably to allow each county equal patronage. If the candidates of preference did not qualify for admission, the quota was filled from among other candidates.

#### Entrance Examinations

The normal schools of the Middle States all required entrance examinations. The requirements were either specified in the law or established by the board of management in accordance with the legal authority accorded it. Since the entrance examination was perhaps the chief means of admitting students, it is discussed in detail.

The board of education made the necessary regulations for admission to the normal school at Ypsilanti. To be admitted in 1863 candidates must undergo successfully an examination in elementary grammar, local geography, and arithmetic through vulgar fractions.<sup>1</sup> By 1870 all new students were being admitted and classified by examination.<sup>2</sup> After 1876 applicants were examined in the whole subject of arithmetic, grammar, and geography and were required to have instructional knowledge of those subjects.<sup>3</sup> The remark of the superintendent of public instruction in 1878 seems to imply that not much use would be made of the entrance examination after that date. He expressed the opinion that those who were admitted to the normal school from the high schools should still be required to pass an entrance examination in the common-school branches.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1863, p. 131.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1870, p. 268.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1876, p. 118.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1878, p. 33.

The Illinois law stated that candidates to be appointed should be examined by the county boards under supervision of the board of education of the normal schools.<sup>1</sup> Section six of the law empowered the board to make the necessary regulations for admission and management of the school.

Superintendent Henry Raab remarked in 1884 that it seemed inadvisable to advance admission standards inasmuch as a very large percentage of the applicants already were unable to pass the easy examinations.<sup>2</sup> In 1888 the board of education in Illinois made the general average of 85 per cent on entrance examinations the minimum for admitting students from McLean County, probably to limit the enrollment from the county in which the school was located.<sup>3</sup> Candidates from the county making below 85 per cent but above 60 per cent would be received by payment of tuition at the rate of \$30 annually. Unless candidates could qualify according to other admission requirements, they must undergo examinations in reading, arithmetic, geography, grammar, and United States history. No one would be admitted whose general average was below 60 per cent. In 1896 242 students were admitted to the normal department by examination and 632 were admitted by other means.<sup>4</sup>

In Minnesota the state normal board had been authorized to set up the necessary standards for admission. The board ruled that any candidate having presented satisfactory testimonials of good character and aptitude for teaching and having passed a satisfactory examination directed by the prudential committee and the

<sup>1</sup>Laws of Illinois, 1857, p. 299.

<sup>2</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1884, p. 55.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1888, p. 60.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1896, p. 77.



principal of the normal school was to be admitted to all the privileges of the school.<sup>1</sup> Candidates were required to pass satisfactorily an examination in reading, writing, spelling, geography, arithmetic, and English grammar. All candidates from each senatorial district were required to send their applications to the prudential committee at least two weeks prior to the opening of school in the fall and were required to undergo examinations at the normal school. In 1888 for entrance to the lowest class of the normal school, applicants were required to undergo an examination equivalent to that for a second-grade certificate.<sup>2</sup>

The Indiana law required the board of trustees of the normal school to determine the conditions on which pupils should be admitted, but subject to four legal requirements; namely, minimum age, evidence of good character, good health, and a written pledge to teach.<sup>3</sup> Although the board might make other requisites for admission, the legal requirements for entrance remained the only regulations in force over a period of years. Not until 1894 were additional requirements imposed. Then the board specified that candidates must have a fair knowledge of spelling, writing, reading, English grammar, geography, United States history, physiology, and arithmetic.<sup>4</sup> Persons holding a one-year, a two-year, or a three-year license were to be admitted without examination. It seems correct to assume that "fair knowledge of the common-school subjects" was determined by examination. By 1897 admission standards had been raised by admitting without examination certain

<sup>1</sup>Report of the State Normal Board, 1861, p. 12.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1888, p. 40

<sup>3</sup>Laws of Indiana, 1865, p. 141.

<sup>4</sup>Annual Catalogue of the Indiana State Normal School, 1893-94, p. 80.

classes of students, such as graduates of commissioned high schools, of colleges, and of universities.<sup>1</sup>

The Wisconsin law stated explicitly that every applicant must undergo examination in such manner as the board of regents might prescribe.<sup>2</sup> In 1880 candidates were required to pass an examination in the elements of arithmetic, grammar, geography, reading, and spelling, with a general average of at least 65 per cent.<sup>3</sup> In 1902 applicants were admitted to the elementary course upon passing successfully an examination in reading, spelling, arithmetic, grammar, geography, and United States history.<sup>4</sup> Even graduates of four-year high schools were required to take a preliminary examination in arithmetic, geography, and grammar. In 1908 applicants for admission to the two-year courses, except graduates of four-year high schools, were examined at the normal school in arithmetic, geography, composition, algebra, English grammar, civil government, English or general history, physiology, United States history, reading, physics, geometry, botany or zoology, literature, and physical geography.<sup>5</sup> Candidates were admitted with conditions in three of the subjects, if their standing in the others gave evidence that they would be able to pursue the regular work of the normal school. For admission to the one-year professional course the applicant must have taught successfully for three years and must pass at the normal school a satisfactory examination in the branches required by law for a first-

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1897-98, p. 56.

<sup>2</sup>General Laws of Wisconsin, 1866, p. 164.

<sup>3</sup>Annual Report of the Board of Regents of Normal Schools of Wisconsin, 1880-81, p. 36.

<sup>4</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Wisconsin, 1902, p. 110.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1908, p. 77.

grade certificate.

By law Missouri required applicants for admission to the normal schools to undergo examinations in such manner as the board of regents might prescribe.<sup>1</sup> In 1876 they required that candidates have a fair knowledge of reading, spelling, language, descriptive geography, and arithmetic.<sup>2</sup> Students who desired to complete either course in one year but who had never attended the school before should take on the first Monday in September an examination in the subjects of the course not included in the last year.<sup>3</sup> In 1900 certain applicants were being admitted and classified without examination.<sup>4</sup> Others were being admitted by examination to the normal and to the sub-normal courses. Very good standing on the examination admitted to the normal department; good standing admitted to the sub-normal. As late as 1907 certain applicants were required to take an entrance examination.<sup>5</sup>

In Iowa rules for admission and management were left exclusively to the board of directors.<sup>6</sup> In 1878 the principal of the Iowa State Normal School in commenting upon class examinations said that many educators felt that the entrance requirements were too high inasmuch as not a few applicants had been refused admission.<sup>7</sup> In 1885 all applicants were required to pass an examination the purpose of which was first, to exclude those deficient

<sup>1</sup>Laws of Missouri, 1870, p. 136.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Public Schools of Missouri, 1877, p. 79.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1887, p. 119.

<sup>4</sup>Annual Catalogue of the Second District Normal School of Missouri, 1898-1900, p. 11.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1906-07, pp. 36-37.

<sup>6</sup>Acts and Resolutions of the State of Iowa, 1876, p. 119.

<sup>7</sup>Biennial Report of the Normal School at Cedar Falls, 1877-78, p. 20.

academically; and secondly, to furnish data for classifying students once they had been admitted.<sup>1</sup> Candidates in order to enter the lowest class had to give evidence of scholarship equivalent to that required for a third-grade certificate. The regulation did not imply that one had actually to secure the certificate. As late as 1907 candidates from district and graded schools were admitted by examination.<sup>2</sup> Standards must have been sufficiently high to exclude any who would be unable to pursue the regular work. Probably but few applicants presented themselves for examination, owing to the large number of accredited preparatory schools in the state.

Entrance examinations were of course of limited value. In the first place, probably not more than from a half to a third of entering students took them; in the second place, some states and some schools within a given state administered more difficult examinations than did others as judged by type questions submitted by chief state school officers. (Apparently in some states not much really serious attention was given entrance examinations.) In the third place, candidates often had qualities of fitness that examinations could not determine in even the most general way.

#### Preparatory Departments

Generally speaking, applicants who did not qualify by examination for admission to the normal departments were not rejected outright; they were received into the preparatory department of the normal school. "Because of the lack of academic training on the part of the candidates, normal schools in most instances gave

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<sup>1</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Iowa, 1883-35. p. 22.

<sup>2</sup>Bulletin of the State Normal School at Cedar Falls (June, 1907), p. 69.

courses in the high-school field. . . . With only a few exceptions, the normal schools were institutions of a secondary level until 1900 and in some instances until 1910."<sup>1</sup> Preparatory classes were sometimes organized as a part of the normal school, sometimes as a part of the model school. In the latter practice the upper grades of the model school became preparatory for the normal school. Typical of the preparatory department are the descriptions by the superintendents of public instruction in Illinois.

In 1864 the model school in the State Normal University was composed to a great extent of adults from various parts of the state, many of whom intended to teach, but were unwilling to bind themselves to do so.<sup>2</sup> In 1880 pupils in the model department had come from the immediate neighborhood, from distant parts of the state, and from other states.<sup>3</sup> The academic instruction they sought for their own purposes they paid for and thus cancelled their obligation to the institution and to the state. The model department was more than self-supporting. In 1888 applicants for the normal department were admitted by promotion from the model department.<sup>4</sup> In 1904 candidates not qualified to enter the normal department were received into the preparatory or sub-normal class whose work covered the elements of the branches required for admission. Only prospective normal-school students might enter the class and they were required to pay tuition at the rate of \$9.00 a term.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>A. Linscheid, "Address," Yearbook of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1928, p. 31.

<sup>2</sup>Illinois Reports, 1865, II, 151.

<sup>3</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1880, p. 134.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1886-88, p. 60.

<sup>5</sup>Annual Catalogue of the Illinois State Normal University, 1903-04, p. 13.



Superintendent Raab in 1892 reported that one of the six ways of admitting students to the normal school was by promotion from the preparatory department.<sup>1</sup> The department was self-supporting inasmuch as a tuition charge of \$25 annually was received from each pupil in the department. Pupils were those who had failed to pass the entrance examination to the normal department, but who would be admitted to the normal school proper whenever they had shown their fitness. No further examination would be required. The department had evidently been abolished in 1894.

Preparatory classes were formed in the Michigan State Normal School in 1870.<sup>2</sup> A new edifice enabled the faculty to form such classes for the first time outside the normal school proper. Prior to that date, preparatory work had been given in connection with the regular work. In 1887 preparatory classes were being organized at the beginning of each term in the common-school subjects and in algebra.<sup>3</sup>

As early as 1878 Minnesota had organized preparatory classes in which rejected applicants to the normal school might prepare for the normal department, upon payment of a tuition fee of \$8.00 a term.<sup>4</sup> In 1880 any one having reached the required grade in the preparatory class was received into the C class of the normal school without further examination.<sup>5</sup> Just as Minnesota early established a preparatory department, so the state early

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<sup>1</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1892, p. 56.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1870, p. 183.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1887, p. 154.

<sup>4</sup>Catalogue of the Mankato State Normal School, 1877-78, p.16.

<sup>5</sup>Records of the State Normal Board, 1859-1884, p. 34.

abolished the department. In 1886 the state normal board voted to discontinue at once the preparatory departments in the schools at St. Cloud and Winona, and the department in the school at Man-kato in 1888.<sup>1</sup>

The visiting committees to the various normal schools in Wisconsin usually referred in their reports to the normal preparatory departments. In 1890 the committee for the school at Oshkosh recommended that the school maintain high enough standards to compel entering students unable to meet the admission requirements to be forced back to the elementary and the high schools for the necessary preparation.<sup>2</sup> The committee felt that the normal standards could be elevated only by raising the standards of the preparatory schools. In 1888 the preparatory departments in Wisconsin had been referred to as necessary departments and as departments likely to be continued since their benefits were twofold: In the first place, they improved the academic fitness of students; and in the second place, they familiarized students with the thought and the spirit of the normal-school work.<sup>3</sup> Four years later, however, the suggestion came from the school at Platteville that the preparatory departments be abolished and the normal schools left free to do their special work.<sup>4</sup> River Falls felt that the "juvenile quality of instruction" there was directly attributable to the preparatory department.<sup>5</sup> Boards of visitors, therefore, recommended that the preparatory departments be removed entirely from the normal schools, and that larger faculties be employed

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1859-1888, p. 34.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Wisconsin (June, 1890), p. 93.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1887-88, p. 57.      <sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1892, p. 71.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 76.

who could concentrate their energies on the regular work of the schools.<sup>1</sup> Justice both to the high schools and to the normal schools they felt demanded abolishing those departments.

Seemingly final reference to the preparatory work in the Wisconsin normal schools was made by the superintendent of public instruction in 1904.<sup>2</sup> There were in some of the schools, preparatory classes organized for pupils not sufficiently well prepared for the regular work of the normal department. He said that pupils were passed from the ninth grade of the model department into the elementary course. It is to be noted that reference here is to preparatory classes and not to preparatory departments.

The preparatory department in the Iowa State Normal School in 1896 consisted of young men and young women of at least fifteen years of age whose scholarship was not sufficient to admit them to the normal school professional classes. At least a year of work was provided in the common-school branches with careful attention given to the methods of teaching each subject. Several different grades were maintained and students were classified by preliminary examinations. For the most advanced class of the department, holders of third-grade certificates were admitted without further examination. Students entered the normal school from this department at the beginning of any term that their qualifications and advancement would permit. The course of study consisted of reading, spelling, arithmetic, English grammar, geography, and United States history.<sup>3</sup>

Reporting for the schools of Missouri in 1901 Superintendent-

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 78.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Department of Public Instruction in Wisconsin, 1904, p. 110.

<sup>3</sup>Catalogue of the State Normal School at Cedar Falls, Iowa, 1896, p. 39.

ent W. T. Carrington remarked that 32 per cent of the work in 1900 had been administered in the sub-normal department of the school; in 1901, however, only 19 per cent of the work was being offered in the sub-normal department.<sup>1</sup> Records for 1905 show that those who had completed the normal training school or model school were being admitted without examination to the normal department.<sup>2</sup>

A fair knowledge of the common-school subjects was the usual academic requirement for admission to normal schools. If candidates who had been admitted were found deficient in knowledge of the elementary branches, they were afforded opportunity at the normal school for taking additional preparatory work. The normal schools in the Middle States made but few restrictions for entrance; in the main, they accepted the candidates who sought admission and gave them academic work concurrently with or preceding the professional work.

#### Completed High-School Work

With the rapid growth in the number of high schools, in the Middle States particularly, came definite advance in academic standards for admission to normal schools. In the Michigan State Normal School in 1874 there were enrolled a number of high-school graduates who had been admitted without examination.<sup>3</sup> In 1889 the superintendent of public instruction said that the normal schools ought to trust the high schools at least until those schools had shown themselves unworthy. A year later all high-school graduates were being admitted without examination.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Public Schools of Missouri, 1901, p. 46.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Catalogue of the Second District Normal School of Missouri, 1904-05, p. 21.

<sup>3</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1874, p. 123.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1890, p. 236.

By 1896 one hundred thirty high schools in Michigan had been accredited by the normal schools.<sup>1</sup> Regulations for entrance in 1908 specified that graduates of accepted high schools would be admitted by diploma to the college courses; applicants who had completed but two years of accredited high-school work would by certificate be admitted to the two-year preparatory course; and graduates of non-accredited high schools would be examined and classified on trial.<sup>2</sup>

The first reference to high-school graduates enrolled at the Iowa State Normal School was made by the principal in 1878 to the effect that graduates of high schools should be classified where they could study the common-school branches.<sup>3</sup> It was pointed out that of the six hundred admitted to date not a student had been able to enter the third year of the course and but comparatively few had been able to enter the second year. In 1891 the number of high schools whose work was acceptable at the normal school was one hundred seventeen.<sup>4</sup> Of that number twenty-two schools had had representative graduates of the normal school; thirty-nine other schools had students in attendance who would graduate in another year. In 1893 large numbers of high-school graduates were being admitted on certificate signed by either the principal or the superintendent of the school from which each had graduated.<sup>5</sup> In 1896 the faculty of the normal school expressed

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1896, p. 183.

<sup>2</sup>Yearbook of the Michigan State Normal School, 1907-08, p. 47.

<sup>3</sup>Biennial Report of the Normal School at Cedar Falls, 1877-79, p. 20.

<sup>4</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Iowa, 1891, p. 24.

<sup>5</sup>Catalogue of the State Normal School at Cedar Falls, 1893, p. 21.



the desire to recognize the work of each high school in so far as that work was thorough and consistent with the professional demands of the state.<sup>1</sup>

Entrance standards in 1903 were based upon the standards endorsed by the College Department of the State Teachers' Association.<sup>2</sup> In general, all high schools accredited by that association were accepted by the normal school. High schools not fully accredited by the Teachers' Association were granted privileges by the normal school in so far as their courses of study would warrant. Graduates, deficient in preparation, were given opportunity at the normal school to complete their preparation.

To be accredited, high schools had to submit to the proper authorities their courses of study when they made application. They were required to meet prescribed conditions among which were the ability to offer instruction in scholastic branches similar or equivalent to those of the second- and third-year courses of the normal school.<sup>3</sup>

By 1882 the Indiana State Normal School had admitted graduates from good high schools who could complete the normal-school course in two years or less.<sup>4</sup> In 1886 graduates of commissioned high schools who might be admitted to the University of Indiana were admitted to the normal school without examination.<sup>5</sup> For admission in 1908 the applicant had to be a graduate of a commis-

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1896, p. 25.

<sup>2</sup>Bulletin of the State Normal School at Cedar Falls, IV (June, 1903), 38.

<sup>3</sup>Catalogue of the State Normal School at Cedar Falls, 1893, p. 21.

<sup>4</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana, 1881-82, p. 181.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1885-86, p. 119.

sioned high school or of a certified noncommissioned high school.<sup>1</sup> In 1920 to be admitted to the school one had to be a graduate of a commissioned high school for all courses except A and B to which graduation from a certified high school would admit.<sup>2</sup> After 1924 graduation from a commissioned high school was required for entrance to all courses.<sup>3</sup> Exceptions were of course made. For example, graduates of certified high schools were admitted with the understanding that they would do two terms of work at the normal school to lift their ratings from a certified to a commissioned grade.

As early as 1883 Missouri had published a special professional course for graduates of high schools and private colleges.<sup>4</sup> Prior to 1889, however, only a few pupils of high-school rating had been admitted. In 1900 graduates of approved high schools and academies having a four-year course were admitted without examination.<sup>5</sup> Graduates of good three-year high schools were admitted to the second year of the Latin and English courses; and graduates of reputable two-year high schools were admitted to the first year of the Latin and English courses. In 1907 graduates of reputable colleges and academies, graduates of high schools, and holders of first-grade certificates were being admitted to the normal department.<sup>6</sup> In 1919 entrance to any of the courses required graduation with fifteen credits from a first-class high

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<sup>1</sup>Annual Catalogue of the Indiana State Normal School, 1909, p. 25.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1920-21, p. 30.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1923-24, p. 57.

<sup>4</sup>Report of the Public Schools of Missouri, 1892, p. 162.

<sup>5</sup>Annual Catalogue of the Second District Normal School of Missouri, 1898-1900, p. 11.

<sup>6</sup>Ibid., 1906-07, pp. 36-37.

school, or a fully accredited academy, or the secondary department of a normal school or teachers' college.<sup>1</sup>

In 1884 the state normal board of Minnesota called the attention of the state high-school board to the importance of arranging their prescribed courses with special reference to fitting young men and young women for entrance both to the normal schools and to the classes in the state university.<sup>2</sup> In 1888 the board referred to the very substantial gain in the student body, owing to the number of high-school graduates enrolled.<sup>3</sup> In 1901-02 there were forty high-school graduates in the two-year course and fifty-eight in the one-year course.<sup>4</sup> In 1905-06 there were forty-one in the two-year course and one hundred thirty-eight in the one-year course.<sup>5</sup> In that year also four-elevenths of the students were graduates of high schools against one-sixth eight years previously. Records in 1910 show that two-thirds of the normal-school enrollment comprised high-school graduates pursuing work two years beyond their high-school course.<sup>6</sup> In 1915-16 the high-school diploma was made a requisite for admission to the normal schools.<sup>7</sup> By that advance great gain was reported in both preparation and homogeneity of the student body. The year 1917-18 marked the complete elimination from the normal schools of the classes of high-school rank. Normal schools thereafter required high-school graduation for entrance just as did the state univer-

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<sup>1</sup>Bulletin and Forty-ninth Annual Catalogue of the Central Missouri State Normal School, 1919, pp. 42-43.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the State Normal Board, 1884, p. 51.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1888, p. 51.

<sup>4</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction, 1903-04, p. 53.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1905-06, p. 65.

<sup>6</sup>Ibid., 1909-10, p. 59.

<sup>7</sup>Ibid., 1915-16, p. 65.

sity and the colleges of the state.<sup>1</sup>

In 1888 students were admitted to the State Normal University upon presentation of a high-school diploma.<sup>2</sup> In 1893 fifty-four high schools had been accredited whose graduates would thereafter be admitted by diploma to the normal school and would be given two years of instruction and practice.<sup>3</sup> Statistics show that two hundred ninety-six students had been admitted in 1896 upon presentation of the high-school diploma.<sup>4</sup> In 1900 President Felmley reported that courses of study had been arranged for graduates of superior high schools, graduates of town and village high-schools, and students whose preparation had been limited largely to a good elementary course.<sup>5</sup> In 1902 graduates of the four-year high schools were admitted to the two-year courses provided that their high-school work had included algebra, physics, chemistry, zoölogy, botany, physiology, physical geography, civil government, general history, and literature; and provided that the work done in those subjects was acceptable at the University of Illinois.<sup>6</sup> In 1923 of the two conditions for admission one was completion of fifteen units of work in a recognized high school.<sup>7</sup>

About 1894 four-year high-school graduates were admitted without examination to the normal schools in Wisconsin.<sup>8</sup> By 1904

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the State Superintendent of Education, 1917-18,  
p. 52.

<sup>2</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1886-88, p. 60.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1892-94, p. 55.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1894-96, p. 77.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1898-1900, p. 82.

<sup>6</sup>Illinois State Normal University Catalogue and Course of Study, 1902, p. 9.

<sup>7</sup>Illinois State Normal University Normal School Quarterly, 1923, p. 18.

<sup>8</sup>Annual Catalogue of the State Normal School at Whitewater, Wisconsin, 1894-95, p. 20.

graduates of four-year high schools were admitted to the advanced course of the junior year without examination.<sup>1</sup> In 1910 conditions for entrance to the two-year courses included graduation from four-year high schools or academies of high-school rank.<sup>2</sup> In 1925 neither high-school graduates nor others were admitted to any normal school until they had first filed in the office of the school a copy of their credentials.<sup>3</sup> If they were otherwise fit, graduates of four-year high schools were admitted without examination. Adults over twenty-one were admitted without examination, but were required to complete fifteen secondary units in addition to the full requirements for any of the curriculums. In 1926 graduates of approved high schools presenting at least thirteen units of work were admitted, but prior to their junior year must have completed six extra credits.<sup>4</sup>

Graduation from an accredited high school with approximately fifteen units of credit finally became a uniform requirement for admission to the normal schools in the Middle States.

#### Teaching Certificates

Some applicants seeking admission to the normal schools had not completed a secondary education, but were in many other respects worthy of admission to the normal school. All the normal schools in the Middle States provided for the needs of these students. In 1885 Iowa admitted to the lowest class of the normal school any candidate who could give evidence that he was able to

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Wisconsin, 1904, p. 110.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1910, p. 77.

<sup>3</sup>Catalogue of the State Normal School, Whitewater, Wisconsin, 1925, p. 18.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1926, pp. 4-5.



secure from a county superintendent a third-grade certificate.<sup>1</sup> In 1893 holders of first-grade or of second-grade certificates were admitted without further examination to the regular professional courses and were classified according to the percentages in their certificates.<sup>2</sup> Holders of only second-grade certificates were required to do two terms of work in arithmetic, English grammar, and United States history instead of the one term specified in the tabulated course.

In 1888 candidates were admitted to the Illinois State Normal University upon presentation of first-grade certificates.<sup>3</sup>

In 1880 the principal of the Mankato State Normal School recommended to the state normal board that certificates of county superintendents be considered qualification for entrance to the lowest class of the normal school;<sup>4</sup> but not until approximately twenty years later did the board take action. In 1889 it resolved that persons who held teachers' certificates of second grade and who had taught at least six months with ability and success should be admitted to the normal school without examination for the purpose of doing special work.<sup>5</sup> At the meeting of the board in 1904 it was further resolved that a first-grade certificate valid at the time of presentation should entitle the holder to twelve credits on the three-year course, provided that the subjects to be accredited be designated by the president in conference with the student and that the average of the certificate be not less

<sup>1</sup>Biennial Report of the Normal School at Cedar Falls, 1883-85, p. 22.

<sup>2</sup>The Iowa State Normal School Catalogue, 1893, p. 21.

<sup>3</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1886-88, p. 60.

<sup>4</sup>Report of the State Normal Board, 1880, p. 42.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1899, p. 209.

than 75 per cent.<sup>1</sup> In 1914 the board recommended that for admission to the normal schools candidates should either have completed two years of high-school work or should possess a first-grade certificate.<sup>2</sup> The regulation was made to apply to all terms of the schools, except the summer sessions.

In 1900 in Missouri holders of first-grade or second-grade county licenses were admitted to the first year of the Latin and English courses; holders of third-grade certificates were admitted to the sub-normal courses.<sup>3</sup> In 1904-05 holders of teachers' certificates of any grade were admitted to the normal schools without examination.<sup>4</sup> Holders of third-grade certificates with an average of 80 per cent or better were admitted without examination in 1907.<sup>5</sup>

In Indiana in 1898 the holder of a one-, a two-, or a three-year county license was admitted to the state normal school without examination.<sup>6</sup>

In Wisconsin holders of second-grade certificates were in 1904 admitted directly to the normal school.<sup>7</sup> In 1910 anyone fifteen years or more old who held an unexpired county license and who had taught at least six months might enter the second year of the two-year course at the normal school.<sup>8</sup>

President T. G. Gray of the school at St. Cloud, Minnesota,

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1904, p. 22.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1914, p. 607.

<sup>3</sup>Annual Catalogue of the Second District Normal School of Missouri, 1898-1900, p. 11.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1904-05, p. 21.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1907, p. 36.

<sup>6</sup>Annual Catalogue of the Indiana State Normal School, 1897-98, p. 56.

<sup>7</sup>Report of the Department of Public Instruction in Wisconsin, 1904, p. 110.

<sup>8</sup>Ibid., 1910, p. 83.

in 1891 voiced an opinion perhaps generally held by normal-school administrators:

The normal school at St. Cloud admits to the lowest class those holding or capable of securing a second-grade certificate. The reason for this is obvious. The state through the county superintendent, declares the candidate competent to teach and licenses him for a year. It would be absurd for the state to declare the same person unfitted to enter upon a course of training for teaching in a school which the state has established for that specific purpose. If he is fit to teach before he comes to the normal school, he ought certainly to be fitted to begin to learn how to teach.<sup>1</sup>

### College Credits

Occasionally applicants for the normal school presented college credits as qualifications for admission. Provision was made in most of the state normal schools for those students. In Missouri in 1887 graduates from colleges who sought admission to the normal schools were excused from the entrance examinations if they could produce satisfactory evidence of proficiency in the subjects to be taught, except those of the last year of the course.<sup>2</sup> In 1896 graduates from reputable colleges were admitted on trial to the Iowa State Normal School, the work in the colleges being evaluated the same as regular high-school work.<sup>3</sup> In 1898 the Indiana State Normal School admitted by diploma graduates of recognized colleges.<sup>4</sup> Regulations in Michigan specified in 1908 that college graduates would be admitted by diploma to the college courses.<sup>5</sup> In 1923 college and university graduates were admitted

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<sup>1</sup>T. G. Gray, "The Normal School Idea as Embodied in the Normal School at St. Cloud," Rise and Growth of the Normal School Idea in the United States (by J. P. Gordy), pp. 96-97; Bureau of Education Circular of Information No. 8, 1891. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1891. Pp. 146.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Public Schools of Missouri, 1887, p. 119.

<sup>3</sup>Iowa State Normal School Catalogue, 1896, p. 25.

<sup>4</sup>Indiana State Normal School Catalogue, 1897-98, p. 56.

<sup>5</sup>Yearbook of the Michigan State Normal School, 1907-08, p.

by diploma to Illinois state normal schools.<sup>1</sup>

In addition to entering the normal school from a reputable college or university, occasionally students sought entrance from other normal schools. In 1892 candidates might enter State Normal University from other normal schools and not sustain loss of standing.<sup>2</sup> They simply struck from the pledge to teach the word "Illinois" and then paid tuition at the rate of \$39 a year. Statistics for 1896 show that six students had enrolled in that manner.<sup>3</sup> In 1923 one of the requirements for admission to the State Normal University was a certificate of attendance at another state normal school or accredited college.<sup>4</sup>

#### Summary

To insure themselves that those who attended the normal schools would teach, the Middle States compelled students to pledge themselves to teach for a specified term in the common schools of the states. To insure the proper kind of teachers, the states exacted a minimum age for entrance and evidence of good character. To guarantee equal patronage to all sections of the state, the legislature allotted students according to geographical area. To measure academic fitness, all the states administered entrance examinations. In order not to bar students unprepared academically for normal-school work, the states established preparatory departments and accepted different grades of teachers'

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<sup>1</sup>Illinois State Normal University Normal School Quarterly, 1923, No. 87, p. 18.

<sup>2</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1891-92, p. 56.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1894-96, p. 77.

<sup>4</sup>Illinois State Normal University Normal School Quarterly, 1923, No. 87, p. 18.

certificates as standards for admission; also, they allowed conditional entrance of certain mature candidates. At first, normal schools admitted students with very meager schooling. At the close of normal-school history, normal schools accepted only graduates of accredited secondary schools. When occasionally conditional admissions were allowed, candidates thus admitted were required to make up the regular entrance requirements before they could receive diplomas or certificates of graduation.



## CHAPTER X

### CHARACTER OF THE STUDENT BODY

Without doubt social and intellectual maturity, determined in the main by chronological age, conditioned in no small way the quality and the kind of work that normal-school students could do, particularly at the beginning of normal-school history in the Middle States. The present chapter treats of normal-school students with respect to their chronological age, their intellectual maturity, their social, their economic, and their academic status. The characterization has been made on the basis of the data presented by chief state school officers and also on the basis of estimates expressed by them.

#### Chronological Age

Chronological age was perhaps the best available index of the social and intellectual maturity of normal-school students. Those attending the Indiana State Normal School in 1872 ranged in age from twenty to thirty years.<sup>1</sup> In 1875 the oldest student enrolled in the Michigan State Normal School was forty-five, the youngest was thirteen, and the mean age was nineteen and one-tenth years.<sup>2</sup> Although Michigan had specified that candidates for admission should be at least eighteen years old if males, and sixteen if females, the principal of the school could at his discretion admit those under the required age who gave evidence of

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana, 1872, p. 64.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1875, p. 203.

maturity of mind and advancement in study.<sup>1</sup> The average for students at the Michigan State Normal School completing the full course in 1877 was 23 and for those completing the common-school course, a fraction more than 21.<sup>2</sup> Twenty years, approximately, was the average age for those admitted to the Whitewater State Normal School in 1891-92.<sup>3</sup> Students in the Illinois State Normal University in 1896 averaged just 20.<sup>4</sup> Data presented for the First District Normal School of Missouri for 1903 show that the age of students there had varied but little over a period of twenty years.<sup>5</sup>

From data available it may be inferred that the average age of students over a period of years in the normal school of the Middle States ranged from 20 to 23 years. Students from the rural districts probably entered at a more advanced age than did those from the graded schools of towns and villages, owing to the fact that in the ungraded schools, there was neither sequence of studies nor regular progression from grade to grade.

#### Intellectual Maturity

Intellectual maturity was a significant factor in determining the kind of work a student could do. Because no objective measures were available, evidence of intellectual maturity was based upon the judgment of those coming into direct contact with the students; and usually that judgment was made on the basis of physical maturity incident to chronological age.

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1859, pp. 134-35.      <sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1877, p. 26.

<sup>3</sup>Biennial Report of the Board of Regents of Normal Schools of Wisconsin, 1890-92, p. 59.

<sup>4</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1894, p. 74.

<sup>5</sup>Bulletin of the First District Normal School of Missouri, 1903, p. 5.

Superintendent Hopkins remarked that the majority of those attending the Indiana State Normal School had maturity of mind and stability of character; that they were somewhat fixed in their habits and were at an age when they were supposed to have some well-defined purpose in view.<sup>1</sup> Superintendent Monteith of Missouri reported that the greater part of the normal-school students in that state had manifested "natural ability, untiring energy, and much enthusiasm."<sup>2</sup> They had earnestly desired, he said, to qualify themselves better for teaching in the public schools. Again in 1880 the superintendent referred to a decided advance in the student body, owing to the increased attendance of teachers and older students "whose settled purpose was to prepare themselves for the profession of teaching."<sup>3</sup>

Superintendent Inglis of Illinois said that managers of state normal schools had found the students in the main mature, industrious, extremely earnest and ambitious, and in many ways highly satisfactory. He added that although many from the rural districts lacked the culture of the high-school graduate, they often surpassed such graduate in ability for work and in steadiness of purpose. Many of them had supplemented their common-school courses by personal work without the aid of teachers; many had attended summer institutes; some had read extensively; and a number had had experience as teachers. He did not think it likely that the normal schools would close their doors to students who had reached the age of eighteen to twenty or even twenty-five or thirty, although they had never had instruction in the secondary-

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana, 1871-72, p. 64.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Schools of Missouri, 1873, p. 113.

<sup>3</sup>Report of the Public Schools of Missouri, 1880, p. 36.

school subjects.<sup>1</sup>

During the academic year of 1899-1900 the attendance at the Iowa State Normal School averaged over a thousand. Governor Shaw declared that a better group of students had never congregated; they had come, he said, with the settled purpose "to make men and women of themselves, to take their places in the battles of life, and to bear their share of the world's burdens."<sup>2</sup> It is evident that normal-school authorities had confidence in the students from the rural districts; they thought that if those students would remain to complete the full normal-school course, they would make the very best of teachers.

Many of the students in the normal schools of the Middle States had taught before they had ever attended the normal school. Detailed explanation of that fact is given in another section of this chapter. For illustrative purposes detailed study was made for the Mankato State Normal School and certain calculations were made from the data obtained. The facts are presented in Table 8. Inspection of the table shows that of the 436 students reporting 160 or about 36.7 per cent had had no teaching experience. Of the 276 students who had taught, one reported that he had taught ten years, a second, that he had taught eleven years, and a third, that he had taught sixteen years. The percentage of those who had taught was about 63.3 per cent. The range in teaching experience was from one to sixteen years. The total years of teaching experience was 579. The average teaching experience was 1.3 years.

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<sup>1</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1894-96, p. 76.

<sup>2</sup>Shambaugh, op. cit., VII, 282.

TABLE 8

YEARS TEACHING EXPERIENCE PRIOR TO ENROLLMENT OF  
436 STUDENTS OF THE MANKATO STATE NORMAL  
SCHOOL FROM 1870 TO 1890<sup>a</sup>

| Year     | Num-<br>ber | Years of Experience |      |      |     |     |     |     |     |                | To-<br>tal | Aver-<br>age |
|----------|-------------|---------------------|------|------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----------------|------------|--------------|
|          |             | 0                   | 1    | 2    | 3   | 4   | 5   | 6   | 7   | Other          |            |              |
| 1870...  | 10          | 6                   | 3    | ...  | 1   | ... | 1   | ... | ... | ...            | 11         | 1.1          |
| 1871...  | 10          | 1                   | 4    | 2    | 2   | ... | 1   | ... | ... | ...            | 19         | 1.9          |
| 1872...  | 22          | 8                   | 11   | 2    | ... | 1   | ... | ... | ... | ...            | 19         | 0.8          |
| 1873...  | 33          | 9                   | 11   | 7    | 3   | 1   | 1   | ... | 1   | ...            | 50         | 1.5          |
| 1874...  | 9           | 6                   | 2    | ...  | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1   | ...            | 9          | 1.0          |
| 1875...  | 11          | 5                   | 3    | 2    | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1   | ...            | 14         | 1.2          |
| 1876...  | 9           | 2                   | 3    | 2    | 1   | 1   | ... | ... | ... | ...            | 14         | 1.6          |
| 1877...  | 22          | 6                   | 13   | 2    | 1   | ... | ... | ... | ... | ...            | 20         | 0.9          |
| 1878...  | 26          | 8                   | 8    | 5    | ... | 2   | ... | 3   | ... | ...            | 44         | 1.7          |
| 1879...  | 21          | 5                   | 7    | 3    | 1   | 3   | 2   | ... | ... | ...            | 38         | 1.8          |
| 1880...  | 19          | 6                   | 8    | 2    | ... | 2   | ... | ... | ... | 1 <sup>b</sup> | 31         | 1.6          |
| 1881...  | 19          | 6                   | 7    | 3    | 2   | ... | 1   | ... | ... | ...            | 24         | 1.2          |
| 1882...  | 5           | 2                   | 2    | ...  | ... | ... | ... | 1   | ... | ...            | 8          | 1.6          |
| 1883...  | 17          | 6                   | 7    | 3    | ... | ... | 1   | ... | ... | ...            | 18         | 1.0          |
| 1884...  | 12          | 3                   | 3    | 3    | 1   | 1   | 1   | ... | ... | ...            | 21         | 1.7          |
| 1885...  | 18          | 5                   | 9    | 1    | ... | 2   | ... | 1   | ... | ...            | 25         | 1.4          |
| 1886...  | 16          | 8                   | 4    | 2    | 1   | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1 <sup>c</sup> | 21         | 1.3          |
| 1887...  | 33          | 6                   | 12   | 6    | 5   | 2   | 1   | ... | 1   | ...            | 59         | 1.7          |
| 1888...  | 38          | 14                  | 11   | 6    | 2   | 1   | 1   | 3   | ... | ...            | 56         | 1.5          |
| 1889...  | 41          | 26                  | 14   | 7    | ... | 3   | ... | ... | ... | 1 <sup>d</sup> | 56         | 1.0          |
| 1890...  | 35          | 22                  | 7    | 4    | ... | ... | ... | ... | 1   | ...            | 22         | 0.7          |
| Totals   | 436         | 160                 | 149  | 62   | 20  | 19  | 10  | 8   | 5   | 3              | 579        | 1.3          |
| Per Cent |             | 36.7                | 34.2 | 14.2 | 4.6 | 4.4 | 2.3 | 1.8 | 1.1 | 0.7            |            |              |

<sup>a</sup>Data were secured from annual catalogues of the Mankato State Normal School from 1870 to 1890, inclusive.

<sup>b</sup>Eleven years of teaching experience.

<sup>c</sup>Ten years of teaching experience.

<sup>d</sup>Sixteen years of teaching experience.

#### Social Status

Students in attendance at the normal school came in the main from rather substantial backgrounds. They represented that element of the population which constituted the backbone of society



in the Middle States. Most of the students were children of farmers of moderate income, and were members of comparatively large families no doubt. Superintendent Newton Bateman of Illinois in 1873 presented data concerning the students who had attended the Illinois State Normal University from the opening day, October 5, 1857, up to December 15, 1874.<sup>1</sup> The data are presented in Table 9.

TABLE 9

DISTRIBUTION BY PARENTAL OCCUPATION OF STUDENTS  
IN STATE NORMAL UNIVERSITY FROM OCTOBER 5,  
1857, TO DECEMBER 15, 1874

| Occupation                       | Total | Percentage |
|----------------------------------|-------|------------|
| Children of farmers.....         | 1,474 | 45.2       |
| Children, self-supporting.....   | 375   | 11.2       |
| Children of widows.....          | 259   | 8.0        |
| Children of mechanics.....       | 219   | 6.7        |
| Children of professional men.... | 216   | 6.6        |
| Children of merchants and agents | 185   | 5.7        |
| Children of public officers..... | 41    | 1.3        |
| Children of bankers.....         | 11    | 0.4        |
| Children of railroad men.....    | 9     | 0.3        |
| Children of hotel keepers.....   | 8     | 0.2        |
| Children of insurance men.....   | 6     | 0.2        |
| Children of butchers.....        | 6     | 0.2        |
| Children of clerks.....          | 6     | 0.2        |
| Children of steamboat men.....   | 2     | 0.1        |
| Children of livery-stable men... | 2     | 0.1        |
| Children of editors.....         | 1     | 0.1        |
| Children of jewelers.....        | 1     | 0.1        |
| Children of auctioneers.....     | 1     | 0.1        |
| Unknown.....                     | 436   | 13.5       |
| Total.....                       | 3,258 | 100.0      |

Inspection of the table shows that 1,474 students or 45.2 per cent of the aggregate enrollment of 3,258 over a period of seventeen years had classed themselves as the children of farmers; but it is probable, says Bateman, that the majority of those supporting themselves, of those marked unknown, and of those classed

<sup>1</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1873-74, p. 128.

as the children of widows were also the children of farmers.

Population in the Middle States was largely agricultural. Statistics kept from the time of organization of the Indiana State Normal School showed, in 1876, that 62 per cent of the entire enrollment had come from the agricultural class and that about 20 per cent had come from other classes representing other forms of productive industry.<sup>1</sup> The students who had attended the Iowa State Normal School up to the year 1881 had been primarily the sons and the daughters of farmers.<sup>2</sup> The pupils of the White-water State Normal School had in 1881 come in the main from the villages and the farms in the immediate vicinity of the normal school.<sup>3</sup> The president of the Winona State Normal School reported that during 1893-94 the distribution of students according to the occupation of parents had been as follows: children of farmers, 165; of mechanics and laborers, 81; of merchants, 39; of professional men, 15; miscellaneous, 17; and unknown, 3.<sup>4</sup> The president of the Mankato State Normal School said in 1896 that the nations represented other than the United States were Austria, Canada, Denmark, England, France, Germany, Ireland, Newfoundland, Norway, Russia, Scotland, Sweden, Switzerland, and Wales.<sup>5</sup> Doubtless it is correct to infer that the students in the normal schools of the Middle States were American-born, but that many of them were of foreign extraction.

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana, 1875-76, p. 123.

<sup>2</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Iowa, 1881, p. 17.

<sup>3</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Wisconsin, 1881, p. 265.

<sup>4</sup>Executive Documents of the State of Minnesota, 1894, pp. 452 f.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., 1896, II, 419.

## Economic Status

The economic status of students directly affected attendance at the normal school and determined whether or not the student might pursue his course uninterruptedly or whether he could pursue the complete normal course at all. Likewise, the student's attendance at the normal school determined whether the curriculum could be well organized and sequential. Evidence is conclusive that the majority of the students in the normal school were compelled for financial reasons to interrupt their school life with periods of teaching or other labor in order to replenish their funds for future study.

Ira Mayhew of Michigan reported that the greater part of a large number of men and women who had not graduated but who were teaching in the primary schools of the state would come later to the normal school to complete the regular course.<sup>1</sup> Many of the eighty-three graduates of the class of 1867 were teaching, but would return later to complete the standard course.<sup>2</sup> During the academic year 1861-62 several of the students in the Winona State Normal School, owing to "pecuniary circumstances," had been allowed to teach a term.<sup>3</sup> In Indiana in 1872 about 68 per cent of the students, largely dependent upon their own industry and previous economy, were licensed to teach.<sup>4</sup> In 1873, of the 309 students enrolled in the Illinois State Normal University, 142 were boarding themselves because they could not otherwise be in attend-

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<sup>1</sup>Reports of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1855, 1856, and 1857, pp. 11-12.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1867, p. 201.

<sup>3</sup>Annual Report of the State Normal Board, 1862, p. 25.

<sup>4</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana, 1871-72, p. 64.

ance.<sup>1</sup> Of the rest many would be able to attend school only a year or two before their funds would be exhausted and they would be compelled to earn enough to continue their study later. Early in normal-school history in Missouri, nine-tenths of the students were supporting themselves.<sup>2</sup> At the Whitewater State Normal School 104 of the 226 students enrolled in the first- and second-year classes in 1882 did not return to school in 1883. "If we assume," says the report, "that one-half of these are teaching, which from past experience seems to be a reasonable estimate, we shall have to add to the withdrawals of 1883 fifty-two more pupils of the elementary course who were teaching last year, and mostly in the district schools."<sup>3</sup>

Because of the economic situation many of the normal schools provided means by which students were enabled to shorten their terms of preparation. Since Wisconsin granted a county certificate to students upon their completion of a short elementary course, many students left school for a while to engage in teaching.<sup>4</sup> Both advantages and disadvantages resulted. Withdrawal from school in the middle of the course broke continuity of school life, sent students out to teach when they should have remained in school, and created new interests that drew strongly away from the full normal course. There was, however, a compensating advantage. Those who returned went back with added experi-

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<sup>1</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1873-74, p. 129.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the Public Schools of Missouri, 1873, pp. 113-14.

<sup>3</sup>Biennial Report of the Board of Regents of Normal Schools of Wisconsin, 1882-84, p. 40.

<sup>4</sup>Annual Report of the Board of Regents of Normal Schools of Wisconsin, 1881-82, p. 66.

ence and greater maturity, a fact that both fitted them to profit by instruction and strengthened the professional tone of the school.

Several of the states permitted students to take examinations for advanced credit. In Iowa persons of known scholarship and teaching experience might take examinations for advanced standing and after a term of work at the normal school were considered eligible to take the examination for graduation.<sup>1</sup> That policy prevailed from the opening term of the school. Graduates of commissioned high schools, that is, of high schools whose graduates were admitted without examination to the University of Indiana, did not need to pursue at the Indiana State Normal School those subjects in which they could pass a successful examination.<sup>2</sup> In Michigan students were accredited according to their attainments shown by examinations.<sup>3</sup> In 1890 accepted standings from other normal schools were also accredited.<sup>4</sup> Superintendent Pattengill reported that during the years following the depression of 1893 the normal schools had been affected disadvantageously.<sup>5</sup> Able students who really aspired to be teachers had been compelled to economize; hence, they had shortened their stay at the normal school. Many had elected the one-year course who otherwise would probably have remained for the diploma. The short course entitled the student to a limited certificate that might be used in any

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<sup>1</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Iowa, 1885, p. 22.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana, 1885-86, p. 119.

<sup>3</sup>Michigan State Normal School Register, 1887-88, p. 8.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1890-91, p. 16.

<sup>5</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1895, p. 388.



county of the state for five years. Thus he was able to teach for that length of time and thereby earn funds for later study. Pattengill evidently realized that interruption of the course probably meant that at least some of the able students would not return to the normal school to complete the standard course.

In 1904 teachers of experience in rural-school work received some credit on the uniform rural course at the normal school. High-school graduates who had taken any of the subjects of the uniform rural course were given full credit for them.<sup>1</sup> Students who had completed not less than two years in an accredited high school could enter the two-year preparatory course and receive credit for work they had done beyond the two years.<sup>2</sup> If a subject included at the normal school had been taken during the first two years of high school, it would be accredited and the student could take an elective.

Still other means were used to shorten the student's course. For example, in Missouri students admitted to Class F for review only were listed as irregular students.<sup>3</sup> In Indiana holders of life state licenses to teach were credited with two years of the regular course and were thus able to graduate in two years.<sup>4</sup> In Iowa, students who were not candidates for graduation but who possessed first-grade certificates and successful teaching experience might pursue work at the normal school as special

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1904, p. 34.

<sup>2</sup>Yearbook of the Michigan State Normal School, 1907-08,  
p. 47.

<sup>3</sup>Report of the Public Schools of Missouri, 1880, p. 177.

<sup>4</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana, 1896, p. 456.

students.<sup>1</sup> Holders of third-grade certificates were classified according to the statement of scholarship they possessed or according to scholarship shown by examination for advanced standing.<sup>2</sup>

In most instances students were allowed to enroll at the normal school at any term of the year. Not all classes, however, might be entered. In Michigan students could enroll in any class of any year for which they were prepared.<sup>3</sup> The same practice evidently prevailed in Minnesota, for in 1877 it was suggested that the work in the normal schools of that state be so organized that classes would run throughout the entire year without change of name; students then would be required to enter the classes at the opening of school in the fall, and multiplication of classes beyond the ability of the schools to furnish teachers for them would be avoided.<sup>4</sup> In Iowa, the courses were open to students at any term.<sup>5</sup> In Missouri, students were admitted to any term or year.<sup>6</sup> Classes of the elementary course were reorganized every twenty weeks to accommodate students who could attend only a half year.

Admission of students at any term made logical sequence in the courses of study difficult if not impossible. In some instances students probably had no intention of completing any of the specified courses. On the other hand, many industrious students eventually completed the full normal-school course only be-

<sup>1</sup>Catalogue of the State Normal School at Cedar Falls, 1896, p. 38.

<sup>2</sup>Bulletin of the State Normal School at Cedar Falls, 1907, p. 69.

<sup>3</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1870, p. 268.

<sup>4</sup>Report of the State Normal Board, 1877, p. 4.

<sup>5</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Iowa, 1883-85, p. 22.

<sup>6</sup>Report of the Public Schools of Missouri, 1892, p. 148.

cause they had been able to enroll with irregularity and pursue work as special students.

#### Academic Status

At the beginning of normal-school history in the Middle States students came chiefly from the ungraded schools of the isolated rural districts, where schools "were kept" only during the winter months and then by teachers who had made no special preparation for their work. Consequently, the applicants for the normal schools were as a rule deficient in the elements of a good common-school education and needed additional preparation.

About 73 per cent of the students attending the Indiana State Normal School in 1872 had received only a common-school education.<sup>1</sup> As late as 1882 Superintendent Bloss reported that many would seek admission to the normal school before they had completed a secondary-school education.<sup>2</sup> Of the normal-school students in Missouri it was remarked in 1873 that, although most of them had taught, they lacked thorough knowledge of the elementary branches as well as general culture.<sup>3</sup> According to the superintendent, students who had remained two or three years at the normal school had become very good teachers. Chief state school officers in Wisconsin often referred to the academic deficiencies of normal-school students in that state. In 1878 the superintendent reported that customarily about 50 per cent of those deficient in academic preparation returned to their homes after one or more terms of work at the normal school and were installed as teachers

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana, 1871-72, p. 92.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1881-82, p. 184.

<sup>3</sup>Annual Report of the Public Schools of Missouri, 1873, pp. 113-14.

in the district schools.<sup>1</sup> Since the public considered those persons normal-school products, the superintendent was concerned that the policy be changed inasmuch as the failure of those teachers would reflect upon the professional tone of the normal school.

Superintendent Pattengill of Michigan in 1895 commented on the significant changes in the qualifications of the normal-school students in that state.<sup>2</sup> More students reasonably well prepared had attended that year than formerly. Normal schools of the country definitely, he felt, were dividing with the colleges and the state universities the honor students from accredited high schools. Whereas the honor students formerly had continued their higher education in college and had taught only temporarily if at all, they were then choosing teaching as a career. Pattengill felt that the change in status was due at least in part to the years following the depression of 1893. Enforced constrictions in various industries and professions, diminished opportunities for employment, and the certainty of the state's pay to teachers, all had undoubtedly directed to the profession of teaching many who in more prosperous times might have made a different choice.

The academic status of the normal-school student in the Middle States is well typified by the data assembled for the Mankato State Normal School for the years from 1877-78 to 1922-23, inclusive. The data are presented in Table 10. Inspection of the figures shows that students in the Mankato State Normal School during the four school years from 1877-78 to 1880-81, inclusive,

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<sup>1</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Wisconsin, 1878, p. 202.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1895, p. 386.

TABLE 10  
ENROLLMENT BY GRADES IN THE MANKATO STATE NORMAL SCHOOL FOR THE  
SCHOOL YEARS FROM 1877-78 TO 1922-23 INCLUSIVE

| School<br>Year | Enrollment in the Various Grades |     |     |     |     |     | School<br>Year | Enrollment in the various Grades |     |     |                 |                  |     |     |     |       |
|----------------|----------------------------------|-----|-----|-----|-----|-----|----------------|----------------------------------|-----|-----|-----------------|------------------|-----|-----|-----|-------|
|                | 9                                | 10  | 11  | 12  | 13  | 14  |                | Total                            | 9   | 10  | 11              | 12               | 13  | 14  | 15  | Total |
| 1877-78        | 93                               | 23  | 26  | ... | ... | ... | 142            | 1900-01                          | 71  | 41  | 104             | 56               | 40  | 38  | ... | 350   |
| 1878-79        | 62                               | 59  | 9   | ... | ... | ... | 130            | 1901-02                          | 104 | 51  | 18              | 24               | 97  | 22  | ... | 316   |
| 1879-80        | 50                               | 36  | 15  | ... | ... | ... | 101            | 1902-03                          | 87  | 41  | 28              | 15               | 93  | 20  | ... | 284   |
| 1880-81        | 66                               | 40  | 14  | ... | ... | ... | 120            | 1903-04                          | 153 | 57  | 33              | 23               | 103 | 21  | ... | 390   |
| 1881-82        | 118                              | 29  | 18  | 19  | ... | ... | 184            | 1904-05                          | 164 | 72  | 43              | 12               | 130 | 17  | ... | 438   |
| 1882-83        | 147                              | 45  | 19  | 15  | 2   | ... | 228            | 1905-06                          | 157 | 76  | 56              | 13               | 173 | 17  | ... | 492   |
| 1883-84        | 150                              | 35  | 16  | 11  | 1   | ... | 213            | 1906-07                          | 157 | 70  | 64              | 10               | 188 | 27  | ... | 516   |
| 1884-85        | 203                              | 79  | 22  | 16  | 2   | ... | 322            | 1907-08                          | 208 | 105 | 81              | 28               | 258 | 30  | ... | 708   |
| 1885-86        | 205                              | 89  | 25  | 13  | 2   | ... | 334            | 1908-09                          | 232 | 141 | 75              | 21               | 283 | 35  | ... | 787   |
| 1886-87        | 165                              | 77  | 52  | 12  | 2   | ... | 308            | 1909-10                          | 315 | 92  | 75              | 28               | 314 | 42  | ... | 866   |
| 1887-88        | 159                              | 75  | 52  | 22  | 2   | ... | 310            | 1910-11                          | 276 | 122 | 67              | 28               | 373 | 69  | ... | 935   |
| 1888-89        | 129                              | 65  | 41  | 30  | 2   | ... | 267            | 1911-12                          | 182 | 125 | 98              | 24               | 345 | 107 | ... | 881   |
| 1889-90        | 159                              | 78  | 40  | 18  | 4   | ... | 299            | 1912-13                          | ... | 223 | 104             | 53               | 371 | 150 | ... | 901   |
| 1890-91        | 165                              | 96  | 42  | 17  | 4   | ... | 324            | 1913-14                          | ... | 203 | 114             | 54               | 368 | 236 | ... | 975   |
| 1891-92        | 168                              | 121 | 69  | 15  | 2   | ... | 375            | 1914-15                          | ... | 74  | 77              | 46               | 389 | 259 | ... | 845   |
| 1892-93        | 143                              | 96  | 90  | 32  | 2   | ... | 363            | 1915-16                          | ... | 87  | 44              | 32               | 382 | 281 | ... | 826   |
| 1893-94        | 144                              | 94  | 82  | 28  | 1   | ... | 349            | 1916-17                          | ... | ... | 98 <sup>b</sup> | 59               | 414 | 288 | 1   | 860   |
| 1894-95        | 159                              | 96  | 71  | 18  | 31  | 3   | 378            | 1917-18                          | ... | ... | 68 <sup>b</sup> | 12               | 340 | 300 | 12  | 732   |
| 1895-96        | 169                              | 75  | 103 | 16  | 27  | 2   | 392            | 1918-19                          | ... | ... | ...             | 47 <sup>b</sup>  | 347 | 249 | 13  | 656   |
| 1896-97        | 164                              | 95  | 104 | 2   | 22  | 3   | 390            | 1919-20                          | ... | ... | ...             | 46 <sup>b</sup>  | 422 | 272 | 15  | 755   |
| 1897-98        | 282                              | 126 | 91  | 1   | 79  | 47  | 626            | 1920-21                          | ... | ... | ...             | 116 <sup>b</sup> | 581 | 260 | 13  | 970   |
| 1898-99        | 349                              | 135 | 92  | 18  | 106 | 25  | 725            | 1921-22                          | ... | ... | ...             | 66 <sup>b</sup>  | 934 | 364 | 14  | 1378  |
| 1899-1900      | 46                               | 109 | 97  | 55  | 51  | 18  | 376            | 1922-23                          | ... | ... | ...             | 81 <sup>b</sup>  | 829 | 443 | 17  | 1370  |

<sup>a</sup> Data were secured from the annual catalogues of the institution from 1877-78 to 1922-23 inclusive.

<sup>b</sup>Summer only.



were in classes that correspond now to the first three grades of a four-year high school. During the academic year 1881-82 nineteen students were enrolled in the twelfth grade, making the normal school for the first time in its history equivalent to a standard four-year high school.

The status of the student body did not change very materially until 1894-95. That year thirty-one students were enrolled in the thirteenth grade and may be considered equivalent to students enrolled in the freshman year of the liberal arts college. That year also three students were enrolled in the fourteenth grade and may be considered the equivalent of sophomores in college; but until 1897-98 the normal school remained essentially a secondary school so far as grade level of students was concerned.

From 1897-98 through the academic year of 1911-12 the enrollment of the normal school corresponded to a four-year high school plus the freshman and the sophomore years of a liberal arts college. After that year, no ninth-grade pupils were received. Further advance was made in 1915-16 when tenth-grade pupils were enrolled for the last time except during the summer sessions of 1916-17 and 1917-18. After the academic year 1917-18 no twelfth-grade pupils were received except during the summer sessions. Following the year 1917-18, the enrollment was predominantly that of the freshman and the sophomore years of a liberal arts college with the small number of juniors enrolled ranging from one to seventeen.

#### Summary

In early normal-school history in the Middle States intellectual maturity was measured by physical maturity incident to chronological age. Most of the students were from the agricultural class. They came from families of moderate income no doubt. Near-

ly all the students were compelled to interrupt their courses with periods of employment in order to secure funds for further study. Because many students were forced to economize with respect to both money and time, most of the normal schools provided a shorter normal course, allowed credit upon examinations successfully passed, and permitted students to enroll irregularly. The first students in attendance at normal schools in the Middle States were deficient in scholarship and in general culture; but they were mature, earnest, ambitious, and satisfactory students. Scholarship improved from year to year so that by the close of normal-school history in the Middle States the normal schools enrolled in the main only high-school graduates.

## CHAPTER XI

### THE NORMAL-SCHOOL CURRICULUM

The purposes for which normal schools were created and the character of the student body determined in large measure the curriculum pattern.<sup>1</sup> Those factors have been considered at length in preceding chapters. The present chapter deals with the different stages in the development of the normal-school curriculum: (1) the early normal-school curriculum, (2) the four-year curriculum, (3) the curriculum for preparing elementary teachers, and (4) the curriculum for preparing high-school teachers. A sufficient number of curriculums have been examined to determine their characteristic pattern.

#### The Early Normal-School Curriculum

The curriculum of the Michigan State Normal School, exhibited in the report of the principal to the board of education for the three-year period 1855-57, inclusive, showed six half-year divisions.<sup>2</sup> Both academic and professional subjects were listed. The academic work offered in the first half of the first year was elementary in character and consisted of mental arithmetic, written arithmetic, geography and map-drawing, orthography, reading, penmanship, and English grammar. The elementary work of the second half of the first year consisted of bookkeeping, physiology, vocal music, drawing, and English grammar. Elementary

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<sup>1</sup>The curriculum "pattern" is determined by its length and its content.

<sup>2</sup>Reports of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1855, 1856, and 1857, p. 372.

algebra was also offered in the second half of the first year. The remainder of the academic work was advanced and consisted of such subjects as higher arithmetic, natural philosophy, science of government, history of English literature, algebra, geometry, trigonometry, geology, and chemistry. The professional work of the course, offered in the last half of the third year, consisted of intellectual philosophy, theory and practice of teaching, and teaching in the model school.

The first curriculum adopted for the normal school at Winona, Minnesota, in 1860 was little more than a paper course. Although the work of the school was discontinued temporarily in 1862, on account of the Civil War, and although no student had the opportunity to finish the prescribed three-year course, it is unlikely that many students would have finished such a pretentious course at that early date in Minnesota.

The work in the first year--entirely elementary--consisted of reading and spelling, oral and written arithmetic, English grammar and composition, geography and map-drawing, and penmanship. The academic work of the second and the third years was advanced and was in the main similar to the advanced subjects in the curriculum of the Michigan State Normal School. The science of education came in the third term of the second year; the remainder of the professional work came in the third year and consisted of intellectual philosophy, school laws, school systems, and practice teaching in the model school.<sup>1</sup>

Inspection of the early curriculum of the Illinois State Normal University reveals no marked differences from the courses examined for Michigan and Minnesota. The first year was devoted to the elementary subjects of reading, spelling, grammar, arith-

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<sup>1</sup>Report of the State Normal Board, 1861, p. 13.

metic, geography, and history. The professional work came in the third term of the first year and in all three terms of the third year.<sup>1</sup>

Similarities of the preceding three curriculums argue a fairly uniform pattern--a curriculum nominally three years in length and constituted of both academic and professional work. Although a portion of the academic work duplicated the common-school subjects, much of it was advanced in character and was offered in the second and the third years. The work included such subjects as algebra, geometry, trigonometry, chemistry, English literature, rhetoric, and natural philosophy. The professional work consisted of intellectual philosophy, the theory and practice of teaching, schools and school systems, and practice teaching in the model school.

Students usually remained in the normal school only long enough to complete a portion of the work. Less than four years after the opening of the Michigan State Normal School, the principal reported that only twenty-seven had completed the full course, but that several hundred students had gone out from the lower classes to teach in the primary schools.<sup>2</sup> As late as 1884 the president of the Illinois State Normal University reported that only one-tenth the students who had entered the normal department had remained long enough to graduate.<sup>3</sup>

Those responsible for introducing into the early normal schools the three-year curriculum comprising a large amount of

<sup>1</sup>Charles A. Harper, Development of the Teachers College in the United States, p. 125. Bloomington, Illinois: McKnight and McKnight, publishers, 1935.

<sup>2</sup>Reports of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1855, 1856, and 1857, pp. 369-70.

<sup>3</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1882-84, p. 52.



advanced academic work were obviously imbued with the idea that teachers should possess some degree of culture beyond that included in the subjects which they would teach. They found that they were mistaken, not in the need that teachers had, but in the load that social and economic conditions would bear. Prospective teachers would take only that portion of the academic work which dealt with the subjects they expected to teach; they would take only that portion of the professional work which promised to be immediately helpful. It should be borne in mind that the greatest demand was for teachers for the district schools. Algebra, geometry, trigonometry, chemistry, natural philosophy, English literature, and rhetoric not only appealed but little to teachers of the district schools; they were barren of practical value in isolated places.

#### The Four-Year Curriculum

New educational development, beginning in the fifties, was fully realized in the seventies and the eighties. In 1846 and 1847, respectively, Michigan and Ohio had made legal provision for the organization of union or graded schools.<sup>1</sup> As conditions warranted, schools of that type were organized in other of the Middle States. The development began in the older states and spread into the newer states as they developed agriculturally, commercially, and industrially. This accounts for the fact that the curriculum pattern of normal schools in Michigan, Illinois, and Indiana frequently made retarded appearances in Wisconsin, Iowa, Missouri, and Minnesota.

Confronted as they were with the responsibility of educating teachers for the district schools, for various elementary

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<sup>1</sup>For a brief description of the development and the character of union or graded schools, see chap. iii, pp. 27-30.

grades of city schools, and for the high schools, normal schools occasionally modified their curriculums. Their first attempt to meet the new needs was through a four-year curriculum. The work of the first two years was designed to prepare teachers for the district schools and for the lower grades of city schools; the work of the last two years was designed to prepare teachers for the upper grades and for high-school departments in city schools. By 1863 the Michigan State Normal School had adopted a curriculum consisting of two courses of study: the normal-training course and the higher-normal course.<sup>1</sup>

The normal-training course was designed to prepare teachers for the primary schools of the state. The academic content was that of the common-school branches. Students who proved by examination that they were proficient in the common-school subjects were allowed upon entering the normal school to begin the professional work, consisting of methods of teaching, object lessons, and practice teaching. Able students, particularly those who had been teachers, could thus finish the normal-training course in a half year. Completion of the course entitled them to certificates to teach in the primary schools.

The higher-normal course was designed to prepare teachers for the union schools. Students were admitted to the course on the completion of the normal-training course. The higher course embraced academic subjects of advanced nature and professional subjects that consumed two-thirds the time of the last half of the last year.

The early curriculum of the Indiana State Normal School was designed to prepare teachers for both public elementary

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<sup>1</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1863, pp. 130-31.

schools and for public high schools. The two divisions of the curriculum were designated the elementary course and the advanced course, respectively.<sup>1</sup> It was expected that students having a good common-school education would finish the elementary course in two years, or in two years and a term, and the advanced course in two more years. The work of the elementary course was devoted to a study of arithmetic, English language, geography, United States history, and the elements of natural philosophy, zoölogy, botany, physiology, and algebra. In addition, the customary professional work was offered, including observation in the model school and practice teaching under criticism.<sup>2</sup>

The purpose of the advanced course was stated thus: "The object of the Course is to qualify fully those who shall graduate from the Elementary Course for teaching in the most responsible positions in the Public High Schools of the State."<sup>3</sup> The work of the course consisted of the advanced subjects of algebra, geometry, trigonometry, astronomy, physics, chemistry, botany, zoology, geology, general history, English literature, Latin, and German. The purpose and the content of the two courses were apparently not unlike those of the Michigan State Normal School of 1863.

The normal schools of Wisconsin, under the supervision of their governing board, experimented with the curriculum in order to meet the need for teachers. The curriculum adopted in 1868 for the two normal schools for which provision had been made consisted of an institute course of one term, an elementary course of two years, and an advanced course of three years.<sup>4</sup> The purposes

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74, pp. <sup>1</sup>Annual Catalogue of the Indiana State Normal School, 1873-20-24.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Wisconsin School Report, 1867-68, p. 180.

of the three courses were stated as follows:

The Institute course is designed to meet the wants of those teachers who desire to familiarize themselves with the most approved methods of teaching the subjects mentioned in the course.

The Elementary and Advanced Courses will have for their object thoro' drill in the branches pursued, accompanied with instruction in the best methods of teaching them.<sup>1</sup>

The president of the board of regents of normal schools reported in 1873 that the course of study had been somewhat modified by the adoption of a one-year elementary course.<sup>2</sup> In the same year the president of the Platteville Normal School reported that little interest was being shown in the one-year elementary course. He recommended the establishment of an elementary course of two years and an advanced course of four years.<sup>3</sup> The recommendation was acted upon favorably by the board in 1874.<sup>4</sup> The elementary course was designed to prepare teachers for the elementary schools and constituted the first two years of the advanced course, except that Latin could be substituted for rhetoric. The last two years of the advanced course were devoted entirely to advanced subjects. The professional work consisted of the theory and practice of teaching and from twenty to thirty weeks of mental and moral science. The theory and practice of teaching was offered also in the elementary course. Students in the advanced course were required to take professional work in the elementary course as well.<sup>5</sup>

Apparently there was considerable discussion with respect to the advisability of offering a curriculum constituted of both a two-year course and a four-year course. Preference was indicated

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 183.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1873, p. 248.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 269.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1874, p. 128.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 107.

for a curriculum with a single purpose, three years in length, and designed to provide more training by a year than that provided by the two-year certificate course. The board of regents in its report for 1881-82 pointed out that the three-year curriculum formerly offered had produced fifty-three graduates during its five years; the four-year course of the current curriculum had produced only forty-three graduates for a similar period. During the latter five-year period, one hundred one persons had received certificates on the basis of the two-year course. The board concluded, therefore, that the abolition of the two-year course and the reduction of the four-year course to three years would be detrimental to the cause of education. The point of view of the board on this matter is of value in showing how those who were responsible for the administration of the normal schools recognized the need for keeping the curriculum in line with the needs of the public schools.

It is evident that the elementary course is a means of holding to a specified scheme of preparatory study many pupils who otherwise would seek much less perfect preparation. We cannot overlook, in this matter, the relation of supply and demand, and the above table seems to show that the elementary course meets the demands of school work in the state more fully than the longer one did which preceded it. Unless the course of study of the school, and the inducements to pursue it, are kept in right relations to the conditions on which county certificates are granted, the tendency to use the normal simply as a means of preparing for the examinations will be greatly strengthened, and thus its actual effect upon the educational work of the state will be diminished.<sup>1</sup>

The North Missouri State Normal School in 1873 offered an elementary course of two years and a scientific course consisting of the work of the elementary course and two additional years of work.<sup>2</sup> In 1874 the principal stated the purpose of the curriculum

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1881-82, p. 65.

<sup>2</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of Missouri, 1873, pp. 162-65.



as follows:

Our principal efforts are devoted to preparing a better class of teachers for ungraded, primary and intermediate schools. It is well understood that the foundation for all educational advancement must be laid in these schools. . . . To accomplish this all possible means are used. But to meet a pressing demand, and to accommodate a larger number of ladies and gentlemen, special attention is given to the organization, management and methods of teaching in Graded and High Schools.<sup>1</sup>

In 1874 the principal of the Second District Normal School reported a curriculum of an elementary and an advanced course for his institution.<sup>2</sup> In the meantime, a third normal school was established. A meeting of the three principals and of the state superintendent of public schools was held the latter part of 1875 to secure greater uniformity in the management of the schools.<sup>3</sup> It was agreed that the curriculum of the normal schools should consist of an elementary course and an advanced course, designed respectively to prepare teachers for the elementary schools and for the high schools. The academic work in the two courses should be differentiated on the basis of elementary and secondary. The professional work in the elementary course should consist of practice teaching, and in the advanced course, of the history of education, the philosophy of education, the organization and management of graded and high schools, and institute work.<sup>4</sup>

In 1869 the state normal board of Minnesota requested the principals of the three schools then in operation in that state to confer and report on a curriculum to be used by the three schools.<sup>5</sup> The following year the principal of the school at Wiconna reported that it had not been altogether feasible for the three principals to act in accordance with the request of the

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1874, p. 114.      <sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 118-19.

<sup>3</sup>Report of the Public Schools of Missouri, 1877, p. 79.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 80.

<sup>5</sup>Minutes of the State Normal Board, December 14, 1869.

board, but that he had revised the curriculum of his own institution and had presented it to the American Normal School Association. The association had adopted the curriculum with slight modifications in the direction of limitations rather than extensions.<sup>1</sup> The curriculum was two years in length and resembled the two-year elementary course already described for other normal schools. It was comprised of work in all the subjects commonly taught in the elementary schools. Some beginning work was offered in the elements of algebra, chemistry, and geometry. The customary professional work was offered, consisting of observation, criticism, and practice teaching.<sup>2</sup>

Within the next two years the principals of the normal schools at Mankato and Winona called attention to the need for an advanced course. The principal at Mankato said: "There is a demand for two classes of Normal school representatives, one amply qualified to instruct in the higher English branches, and to superintendent schools, and one qualified and willing to instruct in the smaller district schools."<sup>3</sup> The assertion of the principal at Mankato was reaffirmed the next year by the principal of the school at Winona.<sup>4</sup> The need for an advanced course was insisted upon still more strongly by the principal of the school at Winona in 1875.

There is a clear and urgent demand for an advanced course, supplemental to the present elementary training course. We want men and women of culture, and prepared to become educational leaders. We want at the head of our graded schools, in the high schools, and the superintendents, as vacancies shall occur therein, persons who are at home on our soil and in their chosen work. We shall be able to supply this want

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<sup>1</sup>Executive Documents of the State of Minnesota, 1870, p. 34.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 346-48.

<sup>3</sup>Report of the State Normal Board, 1871, p. 21.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1872, p. 17.

adequately only by an enlargement of our training course in the Normal schools.<sup>1</sup>

Within the next two years the normal-school board reported the adoption of an advanced course which included the higher academic and professional subjects and which was designed to prepare teachers for the more advanced positions in the graded and high schools, including the principalships of those schools.<sup>2</sup>

A second stage in the growth of the four-year curriculum is exhibited in the curriculums of the schools in Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, Missouri, and Minnesota. The curriculum in each normal school served a dual function; namely, that of preparing teachers for both elementary and high schools. Each curriculum was four years in length and was constituted of two courses, usually designated as elementary and advanced. The first two years were devoted to work, elementary in character and intended to ground students in the subjects commonly taught in the district schools and the lower grades of town and city schools. In addition to emphasis on the elementary academic subjects, work of professional nature was also offered. The professional work involved contact with the model school and usually included observation and practice teaching. Generally some work in the theory and practice of teaching was provided.

Two years of immediately practical work was all that could be demanded of prospective teachers for the elementary schools; it was more than could be demanded of the large majority of teachers in the district schools. Educators were firm in their belief, however, that the two-year course contained the minimum of work for the adequate preparation of teachers for the elementary

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1875, p. 21.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1877, p. 5.

schools. They felt that if there were revision, the course should be extended, not reduced in either the amount of work or time spent. In order not to jeopardize the two-year course, those in charge of normal schools permitted irregular attendance on the part of students who were unable to remain in school for two years. As an inducement for the completion of the two-year course, certificates were granted in some states to those who had finished the work satisfactorily.

The advanced course was the last two years of the four-year curriculum. Its academic work consisted of the subjects commonly taught in the secondary schools. Its professional work--on a higher level than that of the first two years--involved almost always some consideration of a philosophic nature of education and the child, particularly the moral and the intellectual aspects of the child. Continued contact with the model school through observation and practice teaching was required.

As previously indicated, the advanced course was designed to meet the demand for teachers for the upper grades of town and city schools. Sometimes those grades were organized into high-school departments requiring rather highly specialized teachers. The high school as a distinct unit of organization affected the demand for qualified teachers. The subjects in the advanced course, since they duplicated in the main the subjects offered in the higher grades, assumed practical significance for students. Normal-school officials looked with favor upon the advanced course because it provided opportunity to offer advanced work, to have mature members of the student body, and to maintain enviable prestige in the eyes of the public. In enrollment the advanced course did not measure up numerically with the elementary course, but in quality it was probably superior to the elementary course.

Curriculum for Preparing Elementary-  
School Teachers

The evolution of the normal-school curriculum was conditioned further by the desirability of independent offerings for preparing teachers for the elementary schools and for the high schools. An early example of such an offering is the two-year curriculum of the Michigan State Normal School designed to prepare elementary teachers and offered for the first time in 1872.<sup>1</sup> The academic subjects consisted of arithmetic, bookkeeping, drawing, English, geography, music, physiology, United States history, reading, botany, elementary algebra, and natural philosophy. Subjects on the elementary level received major emphasis. Professional work consisted of the elements of psychology, general principles of teaching, special and general methods, organization, management and discipline, and practice teaching. All professional courses came in the second year. This curriculum did not vary greatly from the work of the first two years of the former four-year curriculum, except that it was an entity within itself, designed to accommodate students who intended to teach in the elementary schools.

By 1897 the curriculum for the education of teachers for the elementary school had been extended by the addition of two years of work.<sup>2</sup> Completion of the work of the first year or preparatory course was required for work on the three-year course leading to the five-year certificate. The subjects of the preparatory course were common to the elementary school except that elementary algebra was offered for a half year and pedagogy, school law, and school organization were offered apparently as phases of

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<sup>1</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1871, p. 237.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1896, pp. 187-88.



physiology, civil government, and geography, respectively. To enter upon the work of the preparatory course, students were required to be prepared for high school. Approximately half of the three-year course consisted of work in algebra, plane and solid geometry, rhetoric, English history and literature, general history, botany, and physics. The remainder of the work comprised review of the elementary school subjects and professional courses consisting of a year of psychology, and a half year each of methods of the common branches, history of education, methods in science and history, and practice teaching.

A one-year curriculum for high-school graduates was also reported in 1897.<sup>1</sup> The curriculum was limited essentially to professional work and to a review of the common-school branches. Part of the curriculum corresponded almost identically with the professional and review work of the curriculum described in the preceding paragraph. The completion of the curriculum entitled graduates to certificates valid throughout the state for a period of five years.

The state board of education in 1903 formulated an elaborate set of rules to govern the normal schools of Michigan, including the State Normal College.<sup>2</sup> The rules specified the courses of study and the certificates to be issued upon their completion. The work leading to the three-year rural-school certificate required two years and one term for completion. Requirements were reduced in proportion to the number of high-school credits presented, though not below a minimum of one year. The work leading to the graded-school certificate, valid for three years in grades

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1903, pp. 32-36.

below the tenth, consisted of forty-two weeks of professional work beyond graduation from a high-school department in a twelve-year school system. Two years of professional work were required for the diploma and a certificate valid for five years with renewal provisions. Probably the prerequisites for courses leading to the five-year certificate were the same as for the courses leading to the three-year certificate.

Apparently the curriculum for the education of teachers for the elementary schools of Michigan is typical of the curriculum developed for a similar purpose in other states. The curriculum for preparing elementary teachers in Michigan may be summarized as follows: (1) A two-year curriculum was provided for students just out of the eighth grade of the elementary school; (2) a three-year curriculum was provided for students who had completed a one-year preparatory course equivalent to the ninth grade; (3) a one-year curriculum, constituted of professional subjects, was provided for high-school graduates; and (4) a two-year curriculum, also constituted of professional subjects, was likewise provided for high-school graduates.

In Minnesota both the elementary and the advanced courses of 1877 yielded to further demands imposed by society. In 1880 the state normal board resolved that the presidents of the three normal schools of the state should constitute a committee to report at the next meeting of the board a uniform course of study with a view of having the elementary course completed in two years and the advanced course in three years.<sup>1</sup> The committee, reporting almost two years later, recommended an elementary course of three years and an advanced course of four years.<sup>2</sup> The advanced course

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<sup>1</sup>Minutes of the State Normal Board, (December 7, 1880).

<sup>2</sup>Ibid. (May 10, 1882).

was revised in 1895 by an extension of one year and by a division into an English and a Latin course.<sup>1</sup>

The three courses--an elementary course of three years and two advanced courses of five years each--were identical in content in the first and the second years. They consisted of arithmetic, geography, grammar, and music in the first year and of algebra, physiology, American history, rhetoric and authors, and psychology and methods in the second year. In the third year the elementary and the English courses consisted of literature, civics, physics, geometry, and biology. To these offerings was added practice teaching in the model school in the elementary course. The fourth year of the English course consisted of biology, physics, reviews and methods, general history and advanced psychology and methods; the fifth year consisted of English history and literature, chemistry, model teaching, social science, philosophy of education, and physiology or astronomy. The content of the Latin course corresponded to that of the English course, except that Latin was required in the third year in the place of literature, general history was omitted in the fourth year and Latin was required in the place of biology, and in the fifth year Latin was required in the place of chemistry.<sup>2</sup>

At this point the question may arise as to whether the advanced courses functioned to educate teachers for the elementary schools or for the high schools. When the advanced course was first adopted in 1877, it was doubtlessly intended to supply teachers for the high schools as well as to provide superintendents and principals for the graded schools. Finally, the function of educating high-school teachers gave way entirely to the function of educating elementary-school teachers.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid. (April 26, 1895).      <sup>2</sup>Ibid.

The content of the five-year courses seems to answer the question raised in the preceding paragraph. An examination of the course descriptions for both the academic and the professional work gives no evidence that the work was specifically designed to prepare teachers for the high schools.<sup>1</sup> Subsequent action of the state normal board indicates that the five-year courses were intended to educate teachers for the elementary schools. In 1898 the board approved minor changes in the five-year courses and provided for a review of the common branches in the fourth or junior year.<sup>2</sup> The other work of that year consisted of psychology and child study, together with chemistry in the English course, and Latin in the Latin course. A resolution was unanimously adopted by the board in 1899 to abolish the three-year elementary course.<sup>3</sup> Even though the course was reinstated in 1903 on demand of the rural districts of the state,<sup>4</sup> its abolition shows that the board intended that students entering from the eighth grade to prepare for teaching in the elementary schools should enroll on one of the advanced courses. It may be safely assumed, therefore, that the five-year advanced courses had become entirely concerned with the education of elementary teachers and that the normal schools in Minnesota had relinquished their function of preparing high-school teachers.

The constantly increasing number of high-school graduates entering the normal schools definitely affected the curriculum. In 1888 Minnesota adopted a one-year professional course to accom-

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<sup>1</sup>Annual Catalogue of the Mankato State Normal School, 1895-96, pp. 20-34.

<sup>2</sup>Minutes of the State Normal Board (June 7, 1898).

<sup>3</sup>Ibid. (April 21, 1899).

<sup>4</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Minnesota, 1905-06, p. 65.

modate both high-school graduates and college graduates who desired to teach in the elementary schools.<sup>1</sup> The content of the course was entirely professional and dealt with work on the elementary level. To make further provision for high-school graduates, the state normal board in 1895 adopted two courses--a one-year course and a two-year course.<sup>2</sup> These courses gradually increased in popularity, finally supplanting the other courses. Only students possessing diplomas from accredited high schools were admitted to the normal schools after 1916, except that mature experienced teachers might enroll for special work.<sup>3</sup>

In the normal schools of Minnesota the curriculum designed for the education of teachers for the elementary schools closely resembled that of the normal schools of Michigan. The early curriculum was intended to accommodate students entering directly from the eighth grade of the public schools or from the preparatory department of the normal schools. According to the length of time they could remain in the normal school, students were accommodated by an elementary course of three years and by an advanced course first of four years and later of five years. Curriculum provisions were finally made to accommodate high-school graduates--first by a professional course of one year and secondly, by two courses--one of one year and the other of two years. In terms of number of students enrolled the one-year course for high-school graduates predominated in popularity at the outset, but yielded in later years to the two-year course. No additional development of significance took place in the normal schools of

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<sup>1</sup>Minutes of the State Normal Board (May 11, 1888).

<sup>2</sup>Ibid. (April 26, 1895).

<sup>3</sup>Catalogue of the State Normal School, Mankato, Minnesota, 1916-17, p. 16.



Minnesota for the education of elementary teachers until after the normal schools had become state teachers' colleges.

#### Curriculum for Preparing High-School Teachers

The fourth stage in the evolution of the normal-school curriculum is revealed in the effort to educate teachers for the high schools. In 1867 the principal of the Michigan State Normal School said that the schools needed teachers for the higher English studies, for modern languages, and for Latin and Greek.<sup>1</sup> The observation was obviously made for the attention of the state superintendent of public instruction and the state board of education. The fruit of the suggestion was realized in 1871, for in that year an announcement was made that the following courses would be offered: an English course of three years, a classical course of four years, and a modern-language course of four years.<sup>2</sup> The work of the English course consisted of secondary subjects and of professional work, all of which came in the third year. The classical and the modern-language courses consisted largely of academic work, with emphasis on Latin and Greek in the classical and German and French in the modern-language course. The professional work in these courses corresponded to that offered in the third year of the English course. It consisted of psychology, history of education, general principles of school government; discipline, organization, and classification; school laws; relation of teachers to parents, pupils, and society; and practice teaching. The courses exhibit an innovation in the normal-school curriculum in that they provided specialization in various subject-matter fields.

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<sup>1</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1867, p. 202.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1871, pp. 235-39.

The report of the acting principal for the school year 1881-82 shows that four courses were offered that year for the education of high-school teachers, designated the scientific, the literary, the language, and the art courses. They differed from those offered earlier by providing more opportunity for subject-matter specialization.<sup>1</sup> Even greater choice was provided than that indicated by the list of courses, as it was permissible for students to substitute Latin or French for certain other subjects in either the scientific, the literary, or the art courses. The amount of professional work was greatly increased over the amount offered in 1871.

Opportunity for subject-matter specialization came at a later date in other states. The curriculum in the Indiana State Normal School for 1894 made provision for specialization through electives.<sup>2</sup> Fifty credits were required for the completion of the curriculum and at least seventy-five were offered from which to make a selection. Through election students could specialize in science, literature, and language.

By 1904 the normal schools in Wisconsin were permitted to offer advanced courses with specialization in Latin and German.<sup>3</sup> Also, by choosing appropriate electives students could concentrate in the natural sciences. After a year of successful experience, the graduate was entitled to a state certificate good for five years for any grade of the public school, except for high schools with four-year courses.<sup>4</sup> Four years later, a diploma, granted on

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1881, p. 66.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Indiana, 1895, p. 125.

<sup>3</sup>Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Wisconsin, 1904, pp. 109-11.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

completion of any one of the four-year courses, entitled the holder to a special certificate permitting him to teach in any public school of the state for one year. After he had taught successfully for one year, his certificate became valid for life for any grade of the public school.<sup>1</sup> Although minor changes were made in the four-year curriculum, they do not warrant consideration here.

The catalogue of the Iowa State Normal School for 1896 carried the announcement that courses of study were open to those who wished to prepare for the teaching in any phase of public-school work. Among the courses listed were those which met the requirements for a state diploma and which qualified graduates for the higher positions in the public schools. The courses were listed as the Latin Course, the English Course, and the Science Course.<sup>2</sup> In 1907, the catalogue contained a descriptive summary of the curriculum of the Iowa State Normal School.<sup>3</sup> A portion of that summary is presented as typifying the evolution of a phase of the normal-school curriculum peculiar not alone to the normal school in Iowa, but to normal schools of other states as well.

With the evolution of educational work in the state of Iowa, there came also a natural evolution in the work of the Normal School, the course of study being gradually differentiated to meet new demands that by statute and custom were required of teachers in the various departments of public school work. In a short time it became possible, without making any provision in any special way, for many different courses to be offered more frequently than once a year, permitting at the same time that these courses were easily differentiated and specialized giving equivalents in most of the departments, permitting such specialization to occur in most of the lines of study that high school departments needs were successfully

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1908, p. 95.

<sup>2</sup>Catalogue of the State Normal School at Cedar Falls,  
1896, p. 10.

<sup>3</sup>Bulletin of the State Normal School at Cedar Falls, 1907-08, pp. 95-97.

realized and the work required for such teaching thoroly accomplished.<sup>1</sup>

The natural evolution of the work of the normal school did not end with the establishment of a four-year curriculum with opportunities for specialization in various fields. The high schools were rapidly becoming standardized institutions. In their organization they began with the ninth grade and ended with the twelfth. In his report for the year 1889-90, the Commissioner of Education of the United States listed the following subjects as the standard offerings in the public high schools: algebra, Latin, general history, physics, German, chemistry, French, and Greek.<sup>2</sup> The subjects are listed here in descending order of the percentage of students enrolled in them. Even though the number of subjects had doubled by the end of the next decade, their content still was classical and scientific.<sup>3</sup>

At this point it should be recalled that the normal-school curriculum thus far described was four years in length. Like the high-school curriculum, it began and left off at approximately the ninth and the twelfth grades, respectively. In addition to courses of study designated English, classical, and scientific, it offered professional work. Students enrolled on the normal-school curriculum were probably more mature than were students enrolled on the high-school curriculum; but this one advantage scarcely offset the disadvantage of a four-year curriculum in one institution preparing teachers for a four-year curriculum in another institution.

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The board of visitors of the Michigan State Normal School

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Report of the Commissioner of Education for 1889-90, II, 1392.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 2131.

as early as 1886-87 recognized the need for extending the curriculum of that institution to prepare teachers for the high schools. In their report they made the following observation:

While the present course of study has answered a good purpose, yet it seems to us that in order to keep pace with the advance of the public schools, it would be better to somewhat increase the requirements for admission, and add one year's advance study, so that there shall be a greater difference between the acquirements of normal graduates and the requirements of high schools where they are expected to teach.<sup>1</sup>

In his report of the normal school for 1887-88 the principal endorsed the part of the report of the board of visitors that recommended an extension of the four-year curriculum. He believed that such extension would lead to a literary or a pedagogical degree.<sup>2</sup> In 1889, he advocated an extension of the curriculum beyond the current four-year course. "No one can teach intelligently and progressively," he said, "unless his preparation has covered a course considerably in excess of anything he may be called upon to teach." He recommended that two years of work be added to the longer normal-school course.<sup>3</sup> The various recommendations brought comparatively quick results. In 1890 the principal of the Michigan State Normal School reported that an advanced course of six years leading to the degree of bachelor of pedagogics had been established.<sup>4</sup>

More than a decade intervened before other normal schools within the area considered in this study offered work beyond what had become at the time the conventional four-year curriculum for

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<sup>1</sup>Annual Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Michigan, 1887, p. 162.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1888, p. 44.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1889, p. 200.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., 1890, p. 235.



the education of high-school teachers. In 1902 the Ohio legislature made provision for the establishment of normal schools at Athens and at Oxford in connection with the two liberal arts colleges that already had gained wide recognition as standard institutions.<sup>1</sup> It is easy to understand, therefore, that the plan for the curriculums of those two normal schools should call for four years of work beyond the high school, designed to prepare teachers for the high schools of Ohio.

In 1907 the legislature of Illinois conferred upon four of the normal schools of that state the power to grant degrees. The following year David Felmley, president of the Illinois State Normal University, reported that a graduate school had been established in his institution by the state board of education.<sup>2</sup> The purpose of the advanced work was to equip graduates for high-school positions, for village principalships, and for superintendencies in small cities. The advanced work consisted of electives from the various courses offered. The extent of the work was two years beyond that which had been previously offered. In the same year, 1908, John W. Cook, president of the Northern State Normal School, reported that his institution would be able to confer degrees only when additional teachers should have been added to the staff.<sup>3</sup>

In its early effort to offer advanced work the Iowa State Normal School was less fortunate than that of the other normal schools whose work has just been described. In 1909 the legislature changed the name of the normal school to that of the Iowa State Teachers College. Commenting upon the fact in his biennial

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1902, p. 6.

<sup>2</sup>Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Illinois, 1906-08, p. 158.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 178.

report, the president of the state board of education justified the change of name in the following statements:

This change was justified, for this institution can no longer be properly designated merely as a normal school. It is more than a normal school as that term is generally understood. It would perhaps be in order to say that it is a normal school and more--a college. It confers at least one collegiate degree. Its course leading to a degree of Bachelor of Arts in Education is to all intents and purposes a standard college course.<sup>1</sup>

Within a period of two years a reversal in point of view had taken place with respect to advanced work. In his second biennial report the president of the state board of education asserted that the board had decided to discontinue at the Teachers College all courses in education and in liberal arts which extended beyond the sophomore year. In the first place, it would do away with unjustifiable duplications and in the second place, it would concentrate the education of teachers for the rural and for the elementary schools at Cedar Falls.<sup>2</sup> It is well known of course that the Iowa State Teachers College regained the privilege of educating teachers for the high schools and that a curriculum commensurate to that responsibility was organized and put into effect.

The development of the public high school significantly affected the curriculum of the normal school. The high schools supplied the normal schools with students of advanced scholarship and at the same time created the demand for teachers of higher educational attainments. That development not only elevated the general level of the normal-school curriculum, but also affected the function, the administration, the standards for admission of the normal school, and the character of the student body. Ultimately, the high-school development brought about the transition

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<sup>1</sup>Biennial Report of the Iowa State Board of Education, 1910, p. 17.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 1912, p. 11.

of the normal school into the teachers' college.

### Summary

The first curriculum of the normal schools in the Middle States was nominally three years in length and was designed to prepare teachers for the district schools. Some of the work was elementary in character, but advanced academic work was provided during the second and third years. As a rule, students completed only that part of the curriculum of direct application in the district school. The professional work was meager, comprising merely intellectual philosophy, the theory and practice of teaching, and some practice in the model school. With the development of the union or graded school and the accompanying demand for teachers for the school, the normal schools expanded the curriculum to a four-year course, of which the first and the second years were designed to prepare teachers for the district schools and for lower grades in city systems, and the second and the third years were designed to prepare teachers for upper grades, sometimes designated high-school departments. School men were generally agreed that the normal-school curriculum should consist of both an elementary and an advanced course with differentiation of academic work on the elementary and the secondary levels. Professional work was offered in the philosophy of education and in the theory and practice of teaching. Work of the last two years was on a higher professional level than that of the first two years. With the development of high schools, the normal-school curriculum yielded to the demands of society that teachers for the elementary school and for the high school be educated independently. The result was one curriculum for preparing elementary teachers and another curriculum for preparing high-school teachers; the former was three years in length; the latter, four or five years. The elementary curriculum

and the secondary curriculum were almost identical during the first two years. The increasing number of high-school graduates enrolled in the normal school necessitated modification of both the curriculum for the preparation of elementary teachers and of high-school teachers. The final stage in the development of the normal-school curriculum was the addition of the four-year courses for the preparation of high-school teachers. The curriculum was organized into courses, such as the English course, the classical course, the modern-language course, and the scientific course, and opportunity was given for subject-matter specialization or concentration. A relatively large amount of professional work was offered, and a professional degree was awarded in each state of this study, with the exception of Minnesota and Wisconsin.

## PART IV

### MODERN AGENCIES AND THEIR PROGRAMS FOR THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS

In its early history the normal school functioned primarily for the professional education of teachers for the elementary school. During that time the Middle States were mainly rural in character, and the people, for the most part, farmers who depended largely upon the district school for the education of their children. Eventually, however, the industrial development of the East penetrated the Middle States, facilitated by the railroad, the telegraph, and other modern means of transportation and communication. Villages and towns and even cities developed under the stimulus of industry. The mode of life changed. The graded elementary school supplanted the district school in populous centers. The graded school itself was extended upward to provide more advanced education for the children who desired to remain longer in school. First, the upper grades were organized as high-school departments; later the high-school departments became separate high schools. The latter development created a demand for high-school teachers, a demand that increased in proportion to the increase in the number of high schools and to the increase of the high-school enrollment. As a result of the demand for high-school teachers, the normal school found itself outmoded. It was faced with the necessity of either expanding to meet the new demand for high-school teachers or restricting itself to the education of elementary teachers in accordance with its original practice.



Normal-school leaders, particularly in the Middle States, desired to expand the function of their institutions to include the professional education of high-school teachers. They found a forceful competitor in the departments of education of state universities. Since the education of teachers for the high schools had risen to the collegiate level, university officials were interested in teacher education. They had not previously manifested sufficient interest to retain the normal departments in their institutions for the professional education of elementary teachers on a level below the collegiate. The professional education of high-school teachers involved a struggle between the two agencies, neither of which was adequately equipped for the task in the early years of the rapid expansion of secondary education in the Middle States.

Institutions conform sooner or later to the demands made upon them by the changing conditions of the environment in which they exist. A correct interpretation of the factors operating in society is the first essential, therefore, for determining the character that institutions will eventually take. In the period covered by Part IV of this investigation there were demands for both an enormously increased number of high-school teachers and for better qualified teachers. The two demands have been designated the quantitative factor and the qualitative factor affecting the program for the professional education of teachers. A detailed report of them has been given as a basis for understanding the institutional changes exhibited by the transition of normal schools into teachers' colleges and of departments of education into colleges or schools of education.

Social factors operated to bring about inclusion into the curriculum of new materials. Modification in the organization

and the administration of the curriculum also took place, first, in a shift from prescribed subjects to electives, and second, in a shift from electives to subjects of a comprehensive nature; the latter shift is illustrated by orientation and survey courses. The curriculum development of general character has been reported because of its effect upon the program for the education of teachers in both teachers colleges and in colleges or schools of education. The effect of the curriculum on these schools is indicated by an analysis of the curriculum of representative teachers' colleges and of colleges or schools of education.

Society is dynamic in the rate of the changes it produces. A marked increase in the tempo of social change is found in the period of the recent depression following the stock-market crash of 1929 with its accompanying financial, economic, industrial, and social dislocations. These new conditions brought into relief significant problems in education, problems implying new practices in teacher education. Current problems and practices in teacher education are presented as an appropriate culmination to this investigation.

The scope and the content of Part IV are indicated by the chapter headings: (1) Factors Affecting the Program for the Professional Education of Teachers from 1890 to 1930, (2) Institutional Development for the Professional Education of High-School Teachers, (3) Curriculum Development for the Professional Education of Teachers, (4) Program for the Professional Education of Teachers in State Teachers Colleges, (5) Program for the Professional Education of Teachers in State Universities, and (6) Current Problems and Practices in Teacher Education.

## CHAPTER XII

### FACTORS AFFECTING THE PROGRAM FOR THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS FROM 1890 TO 1930

Change in the program for the professional education of teachers was impending at the close of the last century. The present chapter deals with the factors underlying the changes that took place in the main from 1890 to 1930. The factors consisted of (1) the increase in the number of teachers needed, (2) the advance in the educational requirements for teachers, and (3) the research in the field of teacher education. The first two factors furnished in the main the dynamics for the changes and the third factor gave chief direction to them. Each of the factors is given consideration in turn in this chapter under the following headings: (1) the quantitative factor, (2) the qualitative factor, and (3) the research factor.

#### The Quantitative Factor

The quantitative aspect of the expansion of the teacher-education program from 1890 to 1930 is exhibited in school statistics reported by the United States Commissioner of Education. From that source data have been assembled by ten-year periods with respect to enrollment in public elementary and secondary schools, the number of public high schools, and the number of teachers employed in the public high schools. These data, presented in the Appendix in Tables 20 to 24, inclusive, are analyzed in this section for the purpose of determining their influence on the development of the teacher-education program during the period under

consideration.

The combined enrollment of elementary and of secondary schools for the eight states of this study, with the exception of the period from 1900 to 1910, increased by decades sufficiently to be significant. The percentages of increase by decades are as follows: from 1890 to 1900, 16.8; from 1900 to 1910, 1.0; from 1910 to 1920, 10.4; and from 1920 to 1930, 19.3. For the entire period the increase was 55.4 per cent. For each of the states there was increase in enrollment from decade to decade, with the exception of Indiana and of Iowa for the second decade and of Missouri for the last three decades. Enrollment in the public schools of Missouri reached its peak in 1900; for the other three decades there was progressive decline in enrollment. Increases in each of the other states by ten-year periods were significant.

Enrollment figures presented in Table 21 of the Appendix show that the elementary schools had a substantial but not extraordinary growth during the forty-year period. In the first decade there was the marked increase of 13.7 per cent; in the second, there was a decline of 1.5 per cent. There was increase in the third and in the fourth decades of 4.1 and 1.7 per cent, respectively. Increase in elementary enrollment for the entire period was but 18.7 per cent. Only in Illinois and in Michigan were there consistent increases from decade to decade. In Iowa and in Missouri there were decreases in the second, the third, and the fourth decades. In Wisconsin there was a decrease during the third decade, and in Minnesota, during the fourth. In spite of these various decreases, the total enrollment in the elementary schools increased between 1890 and 1930 by 783,650. Although the increase was substantial, it was not sufficient to warrant unusual expansion in the program for the education of teachers. The

marked development in that program for the period must be found, therefore, in the growth of secondary education to which attention is now turned.

The increases in the number of high schools within the eight states by ten-year periods and by the period as a whole from 1890 to 1930 are presented in Table 11. Over the forty-year period there was much variation in the increase in the number of high schools among the states. The range in increase was from 363 for Wisconsin to 1,031 for Ohio. The increase in the number of high schools among the states is of less significance for the purpose of this study than is the increase for the states combined. The total increase for the period in all eight states was 5,975; that is, 504.6 per cent. The rate of increase was greatest during the first decade; yet the largest number of high schools was established during the fourth decade. The relatively small number of high schools established during the third decade was probably conditioned by the World War. That the great increases in the number of high schools throughout the Middle States from 1890 to 1930 had tremendous significance with respect to the demand for high-school teachers is obvious.

An even more significant fact with respect to the demand for high-school teachers is found in the increased high-school enrollment. That increase for the United States has been given by Edwards as follows:

During the four decades, the expansion and popularization of secondary education in this country has been little short of amazing. Each decade since 1890, with the exception of one, enrollment in secondary schools has increased by at least 100 per cent. . . . At present, approximately two-thirds of the children of high school age are attending high school. Although the depression probably accelerated the swing toward secondary attendance, the long-time movement is due to the sweep of social forces in American life.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Newton Edwards, Equal Educational Opportunity for Youth, pp. 22-24. Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1939.



TABLE 11  
INCREASE IN NUMBER AND PER CENT INCREASE OF PUBLIC  
HIGH SCHOOLS FROM 1890 TO 1930 BY DECADES<sup>a</sup>

| State      | 1890-1900   |             | 1900-1910   |             | 1910-1920   |             | 1920-1930   |             | 1890-1930 <sup>b</sup> |             |
|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|------------------------|-------------|
|            | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent | Num-<br>ber            | Per<br>Cent |
| Illinois.. | 145         | 72.8        | 280         | 84.3        | 176         | 27.8        | 255         | 31.5        | 866                    | 435.2       |
| Indiana... | 273         | 250.5       | 249         | 65.2        | 95          | 15.1        | 143         | 19.7        | 780                    | 697.2       |
| Iowa.....  | 185         | 118.4       | 234         | 76.7        | 186         | 30.8        | 197         | 24.8        | 832                    | 523.3       |
| Michigan.. | 141         | 92.1        | 97          | 32.9        | 105         | 26.8        | 288         | 58.1        | 631                    | 412.4       |
| Minnesota. | 38          | 49.3        | 87          | 75.7        | 219         | 108.4       | 155         | 36.8        | 499                    | 648.1       |
| Missouri.. | 164         | 234.3       | 152         | 64.9        | 163         | 42.2        | 514         | 93.6        | 993                    | 141.9       |
| Ohio.....  | 387         | 132.9       | 155         | 22.9        | 82          | 9.8         | 407         | 44.5        | 1,031                  | 354.3       |
| Wisconsin. | 105         | 83.3        | 42          | 18.2        | 118         | 43.2        | 98          | 25.1        | 363                    | 288.1       |
| Totals     | 1,438       | 121.5       | 1,336       | 50.9        | 1,144       | 28.9        | 2,057       | 40.1        | 5,975                  | 504.6       |

<sup>a</sup>Constructed from data in Table 23, Appendix.

<sup>b</sup>Increase in number and percentage for entire period.

Enrollment facts for the public high schools in the Middle States<sup>1</sup> are no less amazing than are those given by Edwards for the nation. The data, presented in Table 12, show that the high-school enrollment had increased from approximately 90,000 in 1890 to more than 1,500,000 in 1930. By the end of the period, therefore, the enrollment had increased about seventeen and a third times. The percentage of increase by decades is significant. On the average, the enrollment lacked but little of doubling for each decade. The rate of increase in high-school enrollment had surpassed many times the rate of increase in total population. In 1890 approximately 7 per cent of the children of high-school age (14 to 17) was enrolled in public and private high schools. In 1930 approximately 52 per cent was enrolled in high school.<sup>2</sup> A cursory examination of the enrollment figures brings into sharp relief the tremendous problem that faced each of the states in providing for the phenomenal increases in the high-school enrollment. On the average, every state except Iowa and Wisconsin had more than doubled its high-school enrollment for each ten-year period. In 1890 enrollment had not reached the 600 mark in either Minnesota or Missouri; nor had it reached the 9,000 mark in either Indiana or Wisconsin; and in Ohio the enrollment had exceeded but slightly 20,000. On the other hand, in 1930 no state had an enrollment of less than 125,000. Three of the states--Illinois, Michigan, and Ohio--had enrollments of more than 200,000 each. In fact, Ohio had an enrollment of considerably more than 300,000.

The response of the different states to the demand for high-school teachers is shown in Table 13.<sup>3</sup> The increase in the

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<sup>1</sup>See Appendix, Table 23 from which Table 11 is constructed.

<sup>2</sup>Edwards, op. cit., p. 23.

<sup>3</sup>See Appendix, Table 24.

TABLE 12  
INCREASE IN NUMBER AND PER CENT INCREASE OF PUPILS ENROLLED IN  
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS FROM 1890 TO 1930 BY DECADES<sup>a</sup>

| State      | 1890-1900   |             |  | 1900-1910   |             |  | 1910-1920   |             |  | 1920-1930   |             |  | 1890-1930 <sup>b</sup> |             |  |
|------------|-------------|-------------|--|-------------|-------------|--|-------------|-------------|--|-------------|-------------|--|------------------------|-------------|--|
|            | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent |  | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent |  | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent |  | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent |  | Num-<br>ber            | Per<br>Cent |  |
| Illinois.. | 20,913      | 126.5       |  | 25,684      | 68.6        |  | 64,564      | 102.3       |  | 163,707     | 128.2       |  | 274,868                | 1,662.5     |  |
| Indiana..  | 18,016      | 214.5       |  | 17,384      | 65.8        |  | 34,717      | 79.3        |  | 92,202      | 117.4       |  | 162,319                | 1,932.5     |  |
| Iowa.....  | 17,308      | 147.7       |  | 10,517      | 36.2        |  | 12,428      | 31.4        |  | 90,825      | 174.9       |  | 131,178                | 1,119.8     |  |
| Michigan.. | 15,639      | 118.7       |  | 11,173      | 38.7        |  | 45,813      | 114.6       |  | 143,683     | 167.5       |  | 216,308                | 1,642.2     |  |
| Minnesota. | 6,865       | 126.1       |  | 14,367      | 116.7       |  | 34,699      | 130.1       |  | 64,557      | 105.2       |  | 120,498                | 2,212.1     |  |
| Missouri.. | 14,835      | 257.1       |  | 12,377      | 58.1        |  | 39,021      | 118.1       |  | 66,301      | 92.0        |  | 132,334                | 2,293.0     |  |
| Ohio.....  | 25,322      | 124.1       |  | 16,910      | 36.9        |  | 71,266      | 113.8       |  | 203,715     | 152.1       |  | 317,213                | 1,555.7     |  |
| Wisconsin. | 12,052      | 140.6       |  | 11,376      | 55.2        |  | 27,774      | 86.8        |  | 66,316      | 110.9       |  | 117,518                | 1,370.5     |  |
| Totals     | 130,950     | 145.5       |  | 119,688     | 54.1        |  | 330,282     | 96.9        |  | 891,306     | 132.8       |  | 1,472,226              | 1,635.8     |  |

<sup>a</sup>Constructed from data in Table 23, Appendix.

<sup>b</sup>Increase in number and percentage for entire period.

TABLE 13  
INCREASE IN NUMBER AND PER CENT INCREASE OF TEACHERS IN  
PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS FROM 1890 TO 1930 BY DECADES<sup>a</sup>

| State      | 1890-1900   |             | 1900-1910   |             | 1910-1920   |             | 1920-1930   |             | 1890-1930 <sup>b</sup> |             |
|------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|------------------------|-------------|
|            | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent | Num-<br>ber | Per<br>Cent | Num-<br>ber            | Per<br>Cent |
| Illinois.. | 719         | 102.1       | 1,320       | 93.1        | 3,518       | 128.0       | 5,677       | 90.7        | 11,234                 | 1,607.1     |
| Indiana... | 696         | 168.9       | 1,943       | 85.1        | 2,170       | 105.1       | 3,570       | 84.6        | 7,379                  | 1,791.0     |
| Iowa.....  | 484         | 83.9        | 848         | 79.9        | 2,668       | 139.8       | 1,917       | 41.9        | 5,917                  | 1,025.5     |
| Michigan.. | 447         | 69.8        | 751         | 69.0        | 2,174       | 118.3       | 5,277       | 131.5       | 8,649                  | 1,351.4     |
| Minnesota. | 207         | 83.1        | 699         | 138.8       | 2,062       | 170.4       | 1,996       | 61.0        | 4,984                  | 1,632.5     |
| Missouri.. | 454         | 156.0       | 709         | 95.1        | 1,432       | 98.4        | 2,705       | 93.7        | 5,300                  | 1,821.3     |
| Ohio.....  | 789         | 85.0        | 1,092       | 63.6        | 3,307       | 117.7       | 7,210       | 117.8       | 12,398                 | 1,335.9     |
| Wisconsin. | 413         | 109.5       | 701         | 87.5        | 1,619       | 108.5       | 2,072       | 66.6        | 4,805                  | 1,274.5     |
| Totals     | 4,209       | 99.5        | 7,063       | 83.7        | 18,950      | 122.3       | 30,424      | 88.3        | 60,646                 | 1,434.4     |

<sup>a</sup>Constructed from data in Table 24, Appendix.

<sup>b</sup>Increase in number and percentage for entire period.

number of high-school teachers corresponds in the main to the increase in the number of high schools and to the increase in the high-school enrollment in general. The number of teachers approximately doubled on the average for each decade.

The task that confronted each state in providing a sufficient number of teachers for its high schools is readily seen by further analysis of the data. To meet the increasing demand, Illinois, for instance, had to provide for each of the forty years on the average more than 280 teachers, not including the number needed for replacements. For the same purpose Indiana had to provide on the average annually more than 184 teachers; Iowa, 147; Michigan, 216; Minnesota, 124; Missouri, 132; Ohio, 309; and Wisconsin, 120. Inspection of the data in Table 13 indicates that the load was not distributed equally throughout the period. In Illinois, for example, the average annual load for the first decade was 71; for the second, 132; for the third, 351; and for the fourth, 567. The annual increases in the number of teachers employed, augmented by the number needed for replacements, imposed a staggering burden on institutions attempting to meet the need for professionally educated teachers.

The increase in the number of high-school teachers from 1890 to 1930 was conditioned both by an increase in the population and by a progressively larger percentage of youth enrolled in high school. Still another factor, wholly administrative in character, materially affected high-school enrollment. It was during the last two decades of the period that the high school, through development of the junior-high-school unit, incorporated as a constituent element of its organization the seventh and the eighth grades. There was, thereby, a shift in the allocation of pupils enrolled in junior high schools from elementary to secondary education. That



shift affected the enrollment statistics for both the elementary and the secondary schools, favorably, of course, for the latter. That fact is exhibited in the increasing number of teachers reported for the high schools.

### The Qualitative Factor

The rapidly expanding need for an increase in the number of teachers, particularly for the high schools, in the forty-year period from 1890 to 1930 was accompanied by an equally urgent demand for better-qualified teachers. For several reasons the qualifications of high-school teachers had become a matter of special concern to college and university faculties. The college and the university recognized the fact that the qualifications of high-school teachers conditioned the preparation of high-school graduates. Naturally the university and the college desired their students to be well prepared academically. Colleges and universities saw also an output for their product in the employment of college graduates as teachers in the high schools. And finally, the college and the university undoubtedly were sincerely interested in increasing the effectiveness of high-school work.

In 1895 Carey Jones of the University of California read before the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association a paper on the subject: "What Action Ought to Be Taken by Universities and Secondary Schools to Promote the Introduction of the Program Recommended by the Committee of Ten?"<sup>1</sup> Discussion that followed led to the appointment of a committee to represent the Department of Secondary Education of the National Education Association and also to the request that the Department

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<sup>1</sup>"Report of the Committee on College Entrance Requirements, 1899," Journal of Proceedings and Addresses of the National Education Association, 1899, p. 633.

of Higher Education appoint a similar committee to represent that organization.<sup>1</sup> The two committees were to comprise a committee of conference, whose duty it was to report at the next annual meeting a plan for the accomplishment of this end, so urgently demanded by the interests of higher education.

The joint committee, specifically designated "The Committee on College Entrance Requirements," submitted its final report in 1899. One resolution is of special significance; namely, "that the teachers in the secondary schools should be college graduates, or have the equivalent of a college education."<sup>2</sup> The point of view of the committee is sufficiently important to justify quoting a portion of its statement.

The time is past when a superficial knowledge of a variety of subjects, coupled with a knack for giving instruction and administrative ability, can be considered sufficient qualifications for teaching in our high schools. In many departments of study work is now being done in those schools as advanced as that done in the first year of the college course. And there is no better reason in the school than in the college for intrusting this work to the care of teachers who lack adequate special training for it.<sup>3</sup>

The committee contended that able teachers already in high schools should not be replaced by college graduates; on the other hand, graduates fresh from the university should not be considered qualified for the administrative responsibilities of high-school principalships. Concerned directly with the appointment of teachers for departmental work, the committee maintained that colleges and universities were each year graduating many young men and young women all eager to teach subjects for which they had enthusiastic devotion and in which they had achieved distinguished success. The graduates, the committee assumed, had the required knowledge and the love of learning to make them superior high-school teachers. The committee asserted that many of the larger cities already had

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 635.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 658.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

adopted the policy of recruiting high-school teachers from college graduates and that when the practice will have become general "it will react most happily on the higher education of our people by enlarging the field of work open to college men and women, and will be a potent influence in elevating our secondary schools to a position as dignified as that now held by the secondary schools of France and Germany."

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools--organized in 1895--exerted a powerful influence on secondary education within the eight states of this study. So great were the advantages accruing from membership in the Association that a large proportion of the high schools, particularly the larger high schools, made every possible effort to meet the standards for membership. Through its Sub-Committee on High School Inspection, the Association early in its history had made the following recommendation with respect to the qualifications for high-school teachers:

That the minimum of scholastic attainment of all high-school teachers be the equivalent of graduation from a college belonging to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools including special training in the subjects they teach, although such requirements shall not be construed retroactive.<sup>1</sup>

The recommendation of the committee had apparently been adopted as one of the standards for admission to the Association. The committee had also recommended that accredited schools be urged to give preference to teachers who had secured some professional study as an essential part of their education, inasmuch as professional study, observation, and practice teaching under skilled supervision were thought to enhance materially the instruc-

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<sup>1</sup>Proceedings of the Seventh Annual Meeting of the Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools of the North Central States, 1902, Appendix, p. 36.

tional efficiency of the average college or university graduate. Apparently, the recommendation did not become a requirement before 1917. In that year the rule was made that all teachers of academic subjects in accredited schools of the Association must have at least eleven semester hours as a minimum of professional training. "This should include special study of the subject matter and pedagogy of the subject to be taught."<sup>1</sup>

By 1921 the Association had become more specific with respect to the content of the professional work. Educational psychology, principles of secondary education, theory of teaching, history of education, and educational sociology were recommended as types of courses that should be offered.<sup>2</sup> In 1922 the professional requirement to become effective September 1, 1924, was advanced to fifteen semester hours.<sup>3</sup> In its annual meeting in 1924 the Association reaffirmed the requirement of fifteen semester hours in education, but postponed for one year the time for its becoming effective.<sup>4</sup> At the same meeting an important change was made with respect to membership in the Association of acceptable colleges and universities for the education of teachers of secondary schools. The revised standards required the Commission on Secondary Schools to ". . . refuse to recognize teachers trained

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<sup>1</sup>Proceedings of the Twenty-third Annual Meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1917, p. 118.

<sup>2</sup>Proceedings of the Twenty-sixth Annual Meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1921, p. 22.

<sup>3</sup>Proceedings of the Twenty-seventh Annual Meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1922, p. 22.

<sup>4</sup>Proceedings of the Twenty-ninth Annual Meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1924, p. 34.

in any college or university located in North Central Association area unless such teachers are graduates of Colleges and Universities Accredited by the North Central Association."<sup>1</sup> Although the standard was to go into effect September 1, 1926, it never became effective; in the annual meeting in 1925 the Association rescinded its previous action.<sup>2</sup> The mere adoption of the standard shows the extent to which the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools was willing to go in determining the qualifications of high-school teachers.

A measure of the influence of the North Central Association is indicated by the number and the enrollment of the secondary schools on its accredited list. In 1926 the number of high schools for the eight states was reported as 1,217 and the enrollment was reported as 593,726.<sup>3</sup> Five years later the number of schools on the accredited list had increased to 1,416 and the enrollment, to 784,557.<sup>4</sup> The number of schools reported for the latter date (1930-31) was only slightly less than one-fifth the total number of public high schools in 1929-30. (See Table 23, Appendix.) The enrollment was more than one-half the total enrollment in the public high schools in 1929-30. (See Table 22, Appendix.) The objective measure of the influence of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools on the standards of the secondary schools does not give the full measure of its influence. Its prestige undoubtedly carried marked influ-

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 32.

<sup>2</sup>Proceedings of the Thirtieth Annual Meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1925, p. 1.

<sup>3</sup>North Central Association Quarterly, I, No. 1, 41.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., VI, No. 1, 73.



ence on many schools not on the accredited list.

The influence of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools on the qualifications of teachers extended only indirectly below the high school. However, evidence of the advance in the qualitative standards for both elementary and secondary school teachers over a period of six years is revealed by a comparison of the results of two comprehensive investigations of teachers' certificates, the first made in 1921, the second, in 1927. Scholarship attainment was one measure of the quality of teaching certificates. Requirements for the certificate were either graduation from institutions of secondary or college grade or credits earned in those institutions; or examinations in prescribed subjects. The investigations show significant differences in scholarship prerequisites for lowest grade certificates issued to beginning teachers.

In 1921 Iowa, Missouri, and Ohio required examinations for lowest grade certificates, but did not designate any educational prerequisites; Minnesota and Wisconsin required some professional work, but did not specify where that work should be taken. Nor did they require graduation from any type of institution. Illinois required graduation from high school. Michigan required graduation from high school and professional education either in high school or in addition to the high-school course. Indiana was the only Middle State that required for the lowest grade certificate professional work beyond high-school graduation.<sup>1</sup>

In 1927 Indiana, Michigan, Ohio, and Wisconsin all required one year of academic and professional work beyond high-school graduation. Iowa required high-school graduation and also some pro-

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<sup>1</sup>Katherine M. Cook, State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates, p. 21. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 22. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1921.

fessional work. Illinois and Missouri required high-school graduation but no professional work. Minnesota had not set up either academic or professional prerequisites above the ninth grade.<sup>1</sup> However, marked advance had been made by most of the states in scholarship attainment for certificates of the lowest grade.

Usually qualitative standards were not retroactive; they affected only those teachers who had entered the profession after their adoption. It is safe to assume that the qualifications of many teachers were below the standard required for the lowest grade certificate. Table 14 reveals the educational attainments of junior and senior high-school teachers in the Middle States for 1930-31.

The data show the percentage of teachers who had less than a four-year college education, who had four years of college work, and who had attended college more than four years. In the junior high schools the percentage of teachers with less than four years of college work ranged from a minimum of 21.6 for Missouri to a maximum of 52.1 for Illinois. In addition to Illinois one other state, Iowa, also had more than half of its teachers with less than four years of college work. Approximately one-third the junior high-school teachers in the eight states had attended college less than four years. The range of junior high-school teachers who had had more than four years of college work was from 6 per cent for Illinois to 18.4 per cent for Missouri. Measured by their amount of college education, teachers in the senior high schools were much better qualified than were those in the junior high schools. The range in the percentage of those

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<sup>1</sup>Katherine M. Cook, State Laws and Regulations Governing Teachers' Certificates, p. 17. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin 1927, No. 19. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1927.

with less than four years of college work was from 6 per cent for Missouri to 19.9 per cent for Wisconsin. Minnesota ranked highest in the percentage of teachers with four years of college education.

TABLE 14

PERCENTAGE OF JUNIOR AND SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL TEACHERS  
ON EACH OF THREE LEVELS OF PREPARATION, 1930-31<sup>a</sup>

| State     | Junior High School Teachers |                    |                     | Senior High School Teachers |                    |                     |
|-----------|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------|---------------------|
|           | -4 Years<br>College         | 4 Years<br>College | +4 Years<br>College | -4 Years<br>College         | 4 Years<br>College | +4 Years<br>College |
| Illinois. | 52.1                        | 41.9               | 6.0                 | 11.1                        | 60.7               | 28.2                |
| Indiana.. | 26.4                        | 57.6               | 16.0                | 7.2                         | 64.8               | 28.0                |
| Iowa..... | 50.1                        | 40.0               | 9.9                 | 13.9                        | 69.1               | 17.0                |
| Michigan. | 33.8                        | 53.4               | 12.8                | 16.5                        | 61.5               | 22.0                |
| Minnesota | 48.5                        | 43.8               | 7.7                 | 9.0                         | 72.2               | 17.8                |
| Missouri. | 21.6                        | 60.0               | 18.4                | 6.0                         | 64.3               | 29.7                |
| Ohio..... | 29.7                        | 54.1               | 16.2                | 8.1                         | 62.4               | 29.5                |
| Wisconsin | 36.8                        | 52.2               | 11.0                | 19.9                        | 59.5               | 20.6                |

<sup>a</sup>Data compiled from Tables 7 and 8, the National Survey of the Education of Teachers, Vol. II. Teacher Personnel in the United States. United States Bureau of Education, Bulletin, 1933, No. 10. Washington: Government Printing Office.

The range in the percentage of teachers with more than four years of college was from 17 per cent for Iowa to 29.7 per cent for Missouri. With respect to both the junior and the senior high schools Missouri apparently had better qualified teachers than had any other of the Middle States. However, the problem here is not to determine the comparative qualifications of teachers for the Middle States; rather it is to determine the advance in the qualitative standards of teachers generally over a period of approximately forty years. Sufficient evidence has been presented to show that marked advancement had taken place in the requirements for teachers on both the elementary and secondary levels. It has been shown, also, that the advancement in the requirements for high-school teachers included both professional and academic

preparation.

### The Research Factor

In the preceding sections of this chapter the influence of two factors on institutions for teacher education and their programs were considered. These were (1) the increase in the number of teachers needed, particularly for the high schools and (2) the advance in the qualifications for teachers. Still another factor, that of research, exerted an influence on teacher-educating institutions and their programs. During the early part of the period from 1890 to 1930 research in the field of education had its beginning, and by the middle of the period it had become a significant factor in dealing with educational problems. It is not surprising, therefore, that research was applied to the solution of problems in the field of teacher education. That factor is considered in this section by analyses of three important investigations.

One of the early investigations, devoted entirely to the education of teachers, was made at the request of the Bureau of Education in 1914 by Professors Judd and Parker of the University of Chicago. They undertook a study of problems involved in standardizing state normal schools.<sup>1</sup> The authors declared the aim of the study to be ". . . merely to demonstrate the necessity of a broader investigation."<sup>2</sup> The scope of the study is indicated by a list of the problems investigated: (1) the relation of normal schools to colleges and universities; (2) the purpose, the number, and the geographical distribution of the services of state normal

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<sup>1</sup>Charles Hubbard Judd and Samuel Chester Parker, Problems Involved in Standardizing State Normal Schools. United States Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1916.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 15.

schools; (3) the administrative control of state normal schools; (4) student-teaching facilities; (5) students and graduates; (6) faculties of state normal schools; (7) normal-school costs; (8) general courses of study of high-school graduates; (9) the organization of student teaching; (10) the education of rural teachers; (11) the education of high-school teachers and conferring of degrees; and (12) the education of teachers for the special subjects. As a conclusion to the study the authors outlined a program for normal schools to follow in their effort to standardize themselves. They recommended that normal schools become scientific and report systematically on the characteristics of the student body, the activities of the faculty, and the nature of the course of study. In the following statements they urged the necessity of standardization: "There can be no question whatever that normal schools ought to standardize themselves. These institutions would gain many indirect advantages, as well as direct advantages, from an effort to understand and define themselves."<sup>1</sup> The authors cautioned, however, that standardization is both an elaborate and a slow process. In addition, they warned against uniformity. They stated that "flexibility which is of a thoroughly self-conscious type is greatly to be desired."<sup>2</sup> But flexibility which grows out of accidents and chance requirements and which can not be clearly defined in any general way, the authors maintained, is a disadvantage and should be eliminated from the practices of normal schools.

In the same year that the Bureau of Education requested Professors Judd and Parker to study problems involved in standardizing state normal schools, the governor of Missouri invited the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching to consider the problem of the supply of adequately trained and prepared

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 126.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 137.



teachers. He wished the Foundation to give special consideration to the question: "What is the best preparation and what is the duty of the state in meeting it, and how can the state secure the greatest benefit at a minimum expense?"<sup>1</sup> The Foundation accepted the invitation, and the work was initiated in November, 1914, through a conference at Jefferson City.<sup>2</sup> The investigation culminated in a comprehensive report published by the Foundation in 1920. The scope of the investigation is stated in the following paragraph:

The enquiry undertaken by the Carnegie Foundation with the co-operation of many students of education began with an examination of the agencies for the training of teachers in the State of Missouri. . . . A study of these agencies, however, inevitably disclosed a more far-reaching problem, and led to an attempt to evaluate the process itself whereby teachers are prepared, and to an effort to formulate trustworthy principles of procedure. This development of the scope of the enquiry has modified the undertaking in certain important particulars: first, attention has been concentrated on the normal schools, inasmuch as they represent the professional problem of teacher-training in its simplest form; second, instead of a report addressed only to legislators and to lay readers generally, the study has come to include a somewhat technical discussion of the fundamental considerations that enter into the organization and conduct of the courses of study intended for teacher-training; and third, instead of a short bulletin, there has necessarily resulted a volume sufficiently large to admit of the treatment of these professional topics. Throughout the report there is woven a discussion of the statutory and administrative conditions in the Missouri institutions for the training of teachers; and the general treatment has been greatly illuminated by an intensive study of the elements of the Missouri teaching population with which the problem of teacher-training is most concerned.<sup>3</sup>

The investigation led to a number of significant conclusions, stated fully in the report, but reformulated into brief statements here to show the point of view held at the time on the importance of teacher education and the direction it should take. The conclusions follow.

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<sup>1</sup>W. S. Learned and W. C. Bagley, The Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools, p. 3. New York: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, Bulletin 14, 1920.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. xv.

1. Since education is essential for the preservation of the democratic processes in American life, the teachers of children and of youth are by far the most influential instrument through which a people may consciously control its future; they directly determine in great part both the extent and the degree to which sound fundamental ideas pervade, unite, and move people.<sup>1</sup>

2. The shift in education from a nominal to a substantially universal basis involves primarily the teacher and only secondarily "an elaborate hierarchical device that undertakes through successive gradations of textbook makers, superintendents, principals, and supervisors to isolate and prepare each modicum of knowledge and skill so that it may be safely entrusted to the humble teacher at the bottom. . . ."<sup>2</sup>

3. New standards essential for genuine education must be developed with their consequent effect on the present system of schooling entailing the disappearance of distinctions in the various units of the school system, in the gradation of teachers, in the remuneration for services, and in an administrative hierarchy.<sup>3</sup>

4. A new education for teachers is essential, involving the selection of men and women of large ability and long and thorough preparation aimed solely at their future task.<sup>4</sup>

5. The new teacher produced by the new program of teacher education demands a vigorous and discriminating introduction to the public that he is intended to serve so that the public will be convinced of his worth and will pay adequately for his service.<sup>5</sup>

Henry S. Pritchett, the president of the Foundation, made the following claim with respect to the significance of the report:

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 7.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 8.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 9.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 10.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 12.

"It represents the first comprehensive formulation of good practice . . . . and it is believed . . . . that the results here set forth are worthy of the thoughtful study of every earnest and intelligent teacher."<sup>1</sup>

A still more comprehensive investigation than either of the two already reported was authorized by the Seventy-first Congress which provided \$180,000 for a survey of the education of teachers. The act authorized the Department of the Interior through the Office of Education ". . . . to make a study of the qualifications of teachers in the public schools, the supply of available teachers, the facilities available and needed for teacher-training, including courses of study and methods of teaching."<sup>2</sup>

The conditions giving rise to the investigation consisted of two major developments. First, from 1914 to 1919 low salaries for teachers and the demands for employment in other fields as a consequence of the World War had produced a shortage of teachers. Second, during the six-year period following the War there had been reversal of the former conditions resulting in increased enrollments in the public schools, particularly the high schools and colleges, in increased salaries for teachers, and in increased standards for teachers. The effect of the changed situation began to manifest itself by 1927 and to produce issues of real importance by 1930. In the meantime, certain educational organizations, including the National Association of State Superintendents of Instruction and Commissioners of Education, the National Association of Deans of Schools of Education, and the American Association of Teachers Colleges, had become sufficiently impressed with the

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. xvi.

<sup>2</sup>National Survey of the Education of Teachers, I, 10. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1932.

significance of the problems that they exercised their influence in behalf of securing a survey of the education of teachers of national scope.<sup>1</sup>

The survey was organized to make the following five major contributions to the education of teachers: (1) to present a nation-wide picture of conditions and practices, (2) to discover and clarify controversial issues, (3) to discover and indicate trends, (4) to find the solution to problems or to make proposals for improving practices, and (5) to make available significant data as soon as possible.<sup>2</sup>

The report of the survey was published in six volumes. The first contained a bibliography of 1,297 selected and annotated references. The second dealt with the teacher personnel in the United States and was divided into three parts: (1) the personnel of public-school teachers, (2) the personnel of prospective teachers--students enrolled in teacher-educating institutions, and (3) the staff personnel of higher institutions of learning engaged in the education of teachers. The third contained reports centered mainly on curriculum problems--problems of the expanded program and scope of teacher education; admission and selection of prospective teachers; curriculums of normal schools and teachers colleges and of universities, colleges, and junior colleges; schools of observation and student teaching; summer sessions for teachers; graduate work in the education of teachers; and the educational philosophy held by faculty members in schools for the professional education of teachers. The fourth dealt with the education of Negroes. The fifth dealt with special problems in the education of teachers, as follows: (1) the history of the professional education of teachers, (2) the evaluation of teacher education through

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., VI, 1-6.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 10-16.

measurement, (3) student welfare and extra-curriculum activities, (4) library facilities for teachers colleges, (5) reading interests of teachers, (6) the in-service education of teachers, (7) the preparation of teachers for small rural schools, (8) the education of teachers in Europe, and (9) a summary of co-operative studies in the education of teachers. The final volume comprised a summary and recommendations. It was organized in terms of recommendations with respect to (1) raising the level of education of American teachers, (2) making the preparation of teachers more professional, and (3) controlling the demand for and the supply of public-school teachers. In addition, the first chapter of the volume presented the scope and the purpose of the survey. The final chapter contained a body of principles and problems involved in the education of teachers in the United States.<sup>1</sup>

The three investigations described serve merely as illustrations of a vast amount of research in the field of teacher education. Research has undoubtedly exerted a marked influence on institutions and programs for the education of teachers.

#### Summary

The program for the professional education of teachers was materially affected during the period from 1890 to 1930 by the enormous increase in the number of teachers needed and by the significant advancement in the educational requirements for teachers. The outstanding educational development of the period was the expansion of the program for secondary education through the rapid establishment of high schools and the greatly increased enrollment in them. The fact that the enrollment doubled on the average every decade indicates the quantitative character of the demand for teachers which the expansion of secondary education created.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 22-27.



The problem of providing an adequate number of teachers was augmented by an ever-increasing demand for better-qualified teachers. Better-qualified teachers meant advancement in the academic preparation of teachers; it meant also technical education to fit teachers specifically for their profession. Early in the period many educators advocated four years of college work as the minimum requirement for high-school teachers. Soon the demand became insistent that professional preparation should also be required. The outcome of these demands was a minimum requirement of four years of collegiate preparation including at least fifteen semester hours of professional work. Educational research affected the character both of institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers and their programs. The three investigations--Problems Involved in Standardizing State Normal Schools, Professional Preparation of Teachers for American Public Schools, and the National Survey of the Education of Teachers--have been analyzed to illustrate the significance of research in the field of teacher education.

## CHAPTER XIII

### INSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT FOR THE EDUCATION OF HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS

Early in the period from 1890 to 1930 no institution was available for supplying an adequate number of properly qualified teachers for the high schools. Two possible solutions seemed feasible: First, normal schools could expand and enrich their programs; secondly, departments of education in state universities could broaden their scope and enrich their curriculums. Until some such development could take place, normal schools and departments of education were compelled to share the responsibility for the professional education of secondary teachers. Often no professional work was provided; students simply went from the liberal arts colleges directly into high-school teaching. The present chapter discusses four major points relative to high-school teachers: (1) institutional sources of high-school teachers, (2) issues involved in the institutional development for the professional preparation of high-school teachers, (3) transition of normal schools into teachers colleges, and (4) transition of departments of education in state universities into schools or colleges of education.

#### Institutional Sources of High-School Teachers

Fortunately, information is available with respect to the relative number of high-school teachers furnished at the turn of the century by the liberal arts colleges, by normal schools, and by departments of education in universities. In a study reported

by G. W. A. Luckey, the following question had been addressed to city superintendents: "In selecting a new teacher, other things being equal, would you prefer (a) a normal-school graduate, (b) a college graduate with, or (c) without professional training?"<sup>1</sup>

For high-school teachers 84 per cent preferred college graduates with professional training; 10 per cent preferred college graduates without professional training for the simple reason that the teacher is born not made; 6 per cent preferred normal-school graduates because (1) they are more efficient teachers; (2) they waste less time; and (3) they make up for lack of scholarship by skill in teaching.

Data from a study published in 1905 show that for the United States as a whole 70.3 per cent of the male teachers and 53.3 per cent of the female teachers were college graduates, that 7.3 per cent of other male teachers and 10.2 per cent of other female teachers had attended college.<sup>2</sup> Figures for the North Central Division--which includes the eight states of this study--show that 66.8 per cent of the male teachers and 53.5 per cent of the female teachers were college graduates and that 7.7 per cent of other male teachers and 11.8 per cent of other female teachers had attended college. The preceding figures show that the colleges dominated the general education of high-school teachers.

Of teachers educated in colleges only 5.5 per cent of male teachers and 6.1 per cent of female teachers reported having had professional training. For the North Central Division the percentages were somewhat higher. Of male teachers 8.7 per cent

<sup>1</sup>Luckey, op. cit., p. 175.

<sup>2</sup>Edwin G. Dexter, "The Present Status and Personnel of the Secondary Teaching Force in the United States," Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, 1905, Part I, p. 52.

reported that they had had professional training; of female teachers 14.3 per cent reported some professional preparation. For the country as a whole, 15.2 per cent of male teachers and 11.7 per cent of female teachers were graduates of normal schools. In the North Central Division, 20.4 per cent of male teachers and 16.0 per cent of female teachers were graduates of normal schools. Since pedagogical training was a requisite for graduation from normal schools, the preceding figures show that the normal schools dominated in the professional education of high-school teachers.

Dexter says that the fact that only 5.5 per cent of male teachers and 6.1 per cent of female teachers educated in colleges reported pedagogical training is not strange in view of the fact that but few departments of pedagogy were more than a decade old.<sup>1</sup> The average experience of high-school teachers included in the study was 8.7 years for males and 6.1 years for females. The average experience of teachers, therefore, came very nearly equaling the length of time pedagogy had been offered in the departments of education.<sup>2</sup>

The results of still another study published in 1914 throw light upon the type of institution in which high-school teachers were educated. The study was limited to the schools of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The eight states of this study were included, together with Colorado, Nebraska, and North Dakota. The last three states included only eighty of the six hundred sixty-seven schools studied. Facts concerning the kind of institution in which 7,045 teachers were educated are given in the quotation that follows.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 58.

<sup>2</sup>As a matter of fact, however, in the Middle States departments of pedagogy were much older than Dexter's statement indicates. See chapter vi, pp. 78-82.

It was found that 1,040 of these teachers had received their education in normal schools only; 5,109 in college and university only; and that 946 had taken a combined course in normal college or university.

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The college or university is overwhelmingly predominant in the matter of the training of the teachers for high-school positions: 74 per cent of these teachers have had college or university training only; 13 per cent have had normal training only; and 13 per cent have had college and normal training combined, making a total of 87 per cent of these teachers who have come in contact with the college influence, and a total of 26 per cent of the teachers who have come in contact with the normal influence. These figures indicate that the college or university is chiefly responsible for the preparation of teachers for the high school.<sup>1</sup>

The study does not show how many of the teachers who had had college or university training had also had professional training. The facts show that in 1905 a relatively large percentage of high-school teachers were not professionally prepared for teaching. Perhaps the same situation was true for many of the teachers as late as the study of 1914.

#### The Issues Involved

The issues involved in the institutional development for the education of high-school teachers from 1890 to 1930, occasioned by the unprecedented expansion of secondary education, are revealed in the controversy between two groups of educators. One group headed by Homer H. Seerley, John R. Kirk, and David Felmley favored the normal school as an institution for the professional education of high-school teachers. Of the three, says Charles A. Harper, President Kirk was the most fiery and aggressive; President Seerley was the most solidly entrenched in the backing of his powerful institution; and President Felmley was the most keen in his intellectual sparring.<sup>2</sup> Another group contended that superior training

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<sup>1</sup>Walter A. Jessup and Lotus D. Coffman, "North Central High Schools," Thirteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, 1914, Part I, pp. 102-07.

<sup>2</sup>Harper, op. cit., p. 314.



could be given in the departments of education of state universities. A third group of educators, most frequently found in the liberal arts colleges, contended that the inculcation of academic knowledge alone sufficed and that strictly professional education was a waste of time inasmuch as the teacher is born, not made. Some members of this third group even contended that inborn qualities, together with the necessary academic training, constitute the essential qualification in the high-school teacher. Of interest in this connection are the arguments of the first two groups only.

Issues were in the main clear-cut. On the one hand it was argued (1) that the normal school should restrict its efforts to the education of elementary-school teachers; (2) that the normal school was not adequately equipped for offering advanced work for high-school teaching; and (3) that advanced work could be offered satisfactorily only in institutions having access to liberal arts colleges. On the other hand it was argued (1) that the segregation of the education of the elementary-school teachers and the high-school teachers would lead to a caste system of education; (2) that departments of education were incapable of offering the professional work essential for secondary-school teaching; and (3) that professional work could be offered satisfactorily only in the normal schools. The relative advantages and limitations of universities and normal schools in the preparation of high-school teachers are set forth in this section of the study by a symposium of opinions of educational leaders of the day.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>It should be borne in mind that at the time of these arguments universities were equipped only with liberal arts colleges in which were departments of education and that normal schools were deficient in adequate facilities for academic education on the collegiate level. The critical aspects of the arguments were leveled at these two types of institutions as they then existed, but apparently anticipated in each instance institutions

Opinion was practically unanimous that the problem of high-school teacher-education should be given serious attention, inasmuch as the relation of the high school to the welfare of society demanded teachers well prepared both in scholarship and in teaching skill. Controversy arose as to where this preparation could best be given. This study is concerned only with the normal school and with the department of education in the state university.

Dean Russell of Teachers College, Columbia University, contended that a college education was an integral part of the professional preparation of the secondary teacher, that all professional schools were narrowing in their influence, that the normal school was no exception, and that the normal school could not supply the advanced scholarship essential to high-school teaching. He proposed that the normal school provide a distinct course to prepare college graduates for secondary schools and that there be established in the university a professional school for teachers. Personally he felt that the university was the better fitted to take over the major task of preparing teachers for the high schools.<sup>1</sup>

John R. Kirk recognized the inadequacies of the normal school, but he was unwilling to have high-school instruction turned over to the university graduate. In no uncertain terms he protested against the rising propaganda to limit the normal school to the preparation of elementary-school teachers. "Already the high schools of several of the states are seriously damaged by being made the practice schools for inexperienced and undirected

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of different character for the future.

<sup>1</sup>James E. Russell, "The Training of Teachers for the Secondary Schools," Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1901, pp. 639-41.

university graduates who are inexcusably ignorant of school government, discipline, class management, and the direction of student work."<sup>1</sup> He contended that the university graduate should be entrusted with neither elementary-school instruction nor high-school instruction until he had first been overhauled in some school which will recast his ideas of teaching and compel him to acquire reasonable skill in teaching by virtue of some well directed practice. He said that the normal schools in Missouri had better buildings, better general equipment, and better instructors than had the typical college of the Mississippi Valley and that they were covering most of the academic work given in old-line colleges. They would continue that policy, he said, because it was right and because the people believed in it. Normal schools were infringing on no one's territory since there was no exclusive territory legitimately belonging to any one class of schools.

E. N. Henderson proposed before the National Education Association that as a solution to the problem of supplying high-school teachers the normal schools should set up practice and model schools for secondary teachers. They had, he said, no conservatism to overcome and already many of the schools had adequate facilities for the work.<sup>2</sup> At the same time he suggested that the following objections would probably be raised: (1) the high-school teacher should have his bachelor's degree; the senior year of college should be attached to the state university where students may repair for preparation for high-school teaching; (2) the teachers college would be an important adjunct to the university since

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<sup>1</sup>John R. Kirk, "How to Increase Normal School Scholarship," Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1903, pp. 590-92.

<sup>2</sup>E. N. Henderson, "The Co-operation of Universities and Normal Schools in the Training of Secondary Teachers," Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1905, p. 547.

there was need for an institution to prepare not merely secondary-school teachers, but college instructors and superintendents as well; such school should be in a large center near available libraries and schools for all kinds of observation, research, and experiment; and (3) every reason that would place the professional schools of law, medicine, and engineering in the university would place the teachers college there also.

Z. X. Snyder asserted that with but few exceptions normal schools were not equipped to educate high-school teachers; however, those schools would have to undergo less change and less enlargement for the purpose than would colleges and universities. Furthermore, the spirit of the normal school was largely in the pedagogical direction, whereas such spirit would have to be cultivated in the college and the university.<sup>1</sup>

Edwin G. Dexter claimed that with one or two possible exceptions the efficiency of the high schools varied inversely with the number of normal-trained teachers. In his opinion the high schools as a class did not consider the normal schools as appropriate sources of supply for their teaching force and they were consequently using such teachers as makeshifts until other teachers with better academic preparation were available.<sup>2</sup>

M. V. O'Shea said that generally speaking the university secures the ablest men in the teaching profession and that the academic preparation of high-school teachers might best be left to the university.<sup>3</sup> He admitted that universities often lack laboratory facilities for observation and practice; but he re-

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 554.

<sup>2</sup>Dexter, op. cit., p. 56.

<sup>3</sup>M. V. O'Shea, "Relative Advantages and Limitations of Universities and Normal Schools in Preparing Secondary Teachers," The Fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Scientific Study of Education, 1905, Part I, pp. 94-99.

marked that often there is too much practice, so much in fact that the novice merely imitates the peculiarities of his critic. O'Shea argued further that the universities were the more likely to send out secondary teachers of commanding personalities than were the normal schools, since the university as a rule gets the strongest candidates in the commonwealth where it is located. The university should educate the secondary-school teachers, for in so far as possible there should be placed over boys and girls in the high school the man or the woman who has climbed to the top of the educational ladder.<sup>1</sup>

L. H. Jones thought that neither the university nor the normal school had succeeded in preparing efficient high-school teachers.<sup>2</sup> He listed the following defects of the university graduate: He ignores the immaturity of his pupils, having them do what his professors have had him do in college classes. He confines his work to small provinces of subject matter to the exclusion of larger wholes. He feels that it is more important to teach subjects than to teach children; and, because of his overspecialization, he has no settled beliefs, no general conceptions, and no enthusiasm for good citizenship. On the other hand, normal schools have erred equally but in another direction. They have as a rule left their graduates deficient in scholarship either by admitting students with too little preparation or by graduating them from courses not sufficiently extended. Frequently the normal schools have concerned themselves with giving the students the mere mechanics of teaching, or teaching devices, and have not stressed things of greater significance. Jones contended that graduates of the normal school were as a rule better prepared than were university graduates for teaching ninth-grade and tenth-grade

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>L. H. Jones, ibid., pp. 99-100.



pupils. He did not maintain that normal schools should educate all the high-school teachers, but he did think that high-school instruction would be vastly improved by a larger proportion of teachers educated in normal schools.

Homer H. Seerley believed that the right preparation of teachers involved more than the opportunity to attend a good school and acquire scholarship.<sup>1</sup> Properly educated teachers should have broad, academic scholarship, a philosophy of education, right attitudes, and the ability to instruct efficiently. He asserted that universities neither require such attainments nor offer the advantages for such attainments. They merely assume that secondary education had ended whenever the student had pursued higher education. On the other hand, normal schools are fitted by spirit and by tradition to inculcate in teachers correct attitudes, the necessary initiative, and the basic information. Given the opportunity to offer advanced and comprehensive courses, the normal school would prove just as efficient in the preparation of high-school teachers as it had proved in the preparation of elementary-school teachers. He argued that if universities and colleges were going to prepare teachers, they would have to become normal schools in reality even though they might be known by more exalted names.

Joseph H. Hill felt that the normal school must make adequate provision for educating teachers for every phase of the public-school system from the primary grades through the high school.<sup>2</sup> In short, the normal school must become the protagonist of a sound educational philosophy, the exponent of a realizable

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<sup>1</sup>Homer H. Seerley, *ibid.*, pp. 84-88.

<sup>2</sup>Joseph H. Hill, "Preparation of High-School Teachers," *Proceedings of the National Education Association*, 1907, pp. 713-17.

educational practice, and a unifying influence in the state. David Felmley predicted that the normal schools would become teachers colleges and maintain four-year programs beyond the high school.<sup>1</sup> J. W. Crabtree charged the normal-school presidents and the normal-school instructors to hold their ground and to retain their teacher-training leadership.<sup>2</sup>

Charles A. Harper says that the matter of preparing high-school teachers became a real issue with most of the advantage on the side of the university. The normal school had to be definitely on the defensive to prevent the university's forcing it out of the field of preparing high-school teachers.<sup>3</sup> Those who favored the normal school as an institution for the preparation of secondary-school teachers knew that normal schools must either meet collegiate standards or else retire from the field of educating teachers for the high schools. Hence, they prevailed upon state legislatures to provide the necessary means for elevating the standards of the normal school.

#### Transition of Normal Schools into Teachers Colleges

University departments of education were unable to fulfill their self-appropriated function of preparing all the teachers for the high schools; hence, the normal schools were called upon to supply secondary-school teachers as well as elementary-school teachers. Owing to the tremendous increase in high-school enrollment the demand for teachers became a problem progressive in char-

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<sup>1</sup>David Felmley, "The Reorganization of the Normal-School Curriculum," Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1914, pp. 498-502.

<sup>2</sup>J. W. Crabtree, "The Responsibility of the Normal School for Training Teachers for all Lines of School Work," Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1917, pp. 403-04.

<sup>3</sup>Harper, op. cit., p. 308.

acter. As a result, the university found itself overcrowded and unable to cope adequately with its increased enrollment. If the normal school could attain collegiate rating, then many high-school graduates would perhaps choose that school in preference to the university.

The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools insisted upon full college preparation for high-school teachers, including professional work. It was not enough for normal schools merely to extend their curriculums to four years in length; they must meet other collegiate standards as well. The admission requirements, teaching load, student load, salaries, and academic and professional preparation of faculty would have to conform in reasonable degree to the standards required of the traditional colleges.

On the part of the normal school itself there was the manifest desire for expansion. The school had long suffered from the lack of funds, from the lack of equipment, and from an inadequate student body. The normal school had found it difficult if not impossible to secure and retain a scholarly faculty and to maintain a desirable student body. Men of ability and preparation preferred to teach in institutions of college rank where both duties and compensation were the more attractive. Students of ability preferred to attend an institution of college rank. A school that kept its students but two years and with half the student body new to the campus each year, could not develop traditions, customs, and atmosphere--qualities that in the final analysis are often the lasting influence of school life. Certainly if the normal school were to share with the university in the preparation of high-school teachers, it should extend its curriculum into the senior-college field and meet the same standards as those required

of the traditional colleges.

By 1910 normal schools had reached up into the academic field from two to four years, and the trend definitely was toward expansion of all normal-school courses to embrace a substantial academic education prerequisite to professional work. Leadership must be conceded to the state of Michigan which in 1897 had designated the normal school at Ypsilanti the State Normal College<sup>1</sup> empowered to confer degrees. Indiana had already passed a law empowering the state normal school at Terre Haute to extend its course to four years and to confer degrees.<sup>2</sup> The increased importance of high schools had impelled Indiana in 1909 to organize at Terre Haute a college course of four years beyond the high school, the completion of which would lead to the baccalaureate degree. In 1924 all the regular courses were raised to a collegiate level. In 1929 the general assembly changed the name of the institution to the Indiana State Teachers College. Two years prior to the legalization of the Iowa State Teachers College, John W. Cook had cited the record of that school in the preparation of teachers for all kinds of public-school work.<sup>3</sup> He felt that its graduates were unequaled by any equivalent number of teachers who had received their preparation in other kinds of educational institutions. The board of education in Illinois had in 1907 been empowered to confer such professional degrees as are usually conferred by institutions of like character.<sup>4</sup> The normal schools in Missouri had from the first conferred degrees. In 1909 John R.

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<sup>1</sup>Public Acts of Michigan, 1899, No. 52, p. 86.

<sup>2</sup>Indiana State Teachers College Bulletin, Catalogue and Announcements, XXII, No. 3 (June, 1929), 30-31.

<sup>3</sup>John W. Cook, "Capacity and Limitations of Normal Schools in the Professional Preparation of High School Teachers," Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1907, p. 632.

<sup>4</sup>Laws of Illinois, 1907, pp. 527-28.

Kirk remarked that although the practice of conferring the bachelor of arts degree was only two or three years old, all the normal schools had long conferred the degree of bachelor of pedagogy.<sup>1</sup>

W. S. Dearmont added that the school at Cape Girardeau had as early as 1902 adopted a resolution to the effect that the school would offer four-year college courses and confer the bachelor of arts degree.<sup>2</sup> Wisconsin had in February, 1908, by unanimous vote decided to recommend to the board of regents of normal schools that the course of study be extended to four years above the twelfth grade, and that the degree of bachelor of education be conferred upon those who should complete the four-year course.<sup>3</sup>

The Normal School President's Council in May, 1908, agreed to recommend: (1) that all states represented in the Council require that the entrance standards for the normal schools be the same as college entrance requirements for the freshman year; (2) that the normal-school course cover four years of work instead of two; and (3) that the degree of bachelor of education be conferred upon those who should complete the full four years.<sup>4</sup>

The period from 1915 to 1930 saw further marked expansion in the normal-school program. In 1915 W. T. Carrington described the work in the Missouri schools as six years superimposed on two years of high-school work.<sup>5</sup> Two of the six years were given to the study of education in its various phases; two were given to

<sup>1</sup>John R. Kirk, "Discussion: Normal Department. Functions of Training School," Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1909, p. 567.

<sup>2</sup>W. S. Dearmont, ibid.

<sup>3</sup>O. A. Thomas, "The Normal School in Education," Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1915, p. 558.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>W. T. Carrington, "Efficiency Through Teacher Training," Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1915, p. 558.



academic work; and two were given to the completion of college entrance requirements. In 1927 the Indiana State Normal School offered graduate courses leading to the master's degree in education; and in 1928 organized its courses of study according to the junior-senior college plan.<sup>1</sup> By 1925 the Illinois State Normal University had fourteen distinct curriculums and the school comprised a teachers college, a university high school, and an elementary training school.<sup>2</sup> The degree of bachelor of education was conferred upon students who had completed any one of four specified curriculums. The normal colleges in Ohio had been established as degree-conferring institutions. That the state normal schools in Minnesota had attained high degree of proficiency is evidenced by the fact that the year following their transition into teachers colleges all the schools except the school at Duluth had been accredited by the American Association of Teachers Colleges.<sup>3</sup>

When the different state legislatures finally substituted the term "teachers college" for the term "normal school," they did so on the basis of what had previously been achieved. By 1921 there were in the United States approximately ninety degree-conferring four-year teacher-educating institutions. Many of them had become colleges in all but name; they were organized, managed, and operated as colleges. It is not surprising, therefore, that in 1921 the Carnegie Foundation recommended that normal schools drop the old name and become colleges for teachers.<sup>4</sup> Table 15 shows

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<sup>1</sup>Indiana State Teachers College Bulletin, XXII, No. 3 (June, 1929), 30-31.

<sup>2</sup>The Normal School Quarterly, Annual Catalogue, 1925-26, No. 95, p. 17.

<sup>3</sup>Year Book of the American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1922, pp. 56-58.

<sup>4</sup>Illinois State Normal University Annual Catalogue, 1921, p. 98.

TABLE 15

TRANSITION OF THE NORMAL SCHOOLS IN THE MIDDLE  
STATES INTO TEACHERS COLLEGES

| Location          | Date           | Name                                      |
|-------------------|----------------|-------------------------------------------|
| <b>Michigan:</b>  |                |                                           |
| Ypsilanti.....    | April 28, 1899 | Michigan State Normal College             |
| Mt. Pleasant..    | May 12, 1927   | Central State Teachers College            |
| Marquette.....    | May 12, 1927   | Northern State Teachers College           |
| Kalamazoo.....    | May 12, 1927   | Western State Teachers College            |
| <b>Ohio:</b>      |                |                                           |
| Athens.....       | March 12, 1902 | State Normal College of Ohio University   |
| Oxford.....       | March 12, 1902 | State Normal College of Miami University  |
| Kent.....         | March 28, 1929 | Kent State College                        |
| Bowling Green.    | March 28, 1929 | Bowling Green State College               |
| <b>Illinois:</b>  |                |                                           |
| Normal.....       | June 1, 1907   | Illinois State Normal University          |
| Carbondale....    | June 1, 1907   | Southern Illinois Normal University       |
| Charleston....    | June 3, 1921   | Eastern Illinois State Teachers College   |
| Macomb.....       | June 3, 1921   | Western Illinois State Teachers College   |
| DeKalb.....       | June 24, 1921  | Northern Illinois State Teachers College  |
| <b>Iowa:</b>      |                |                                           |
| Cedar Falls...    | April 6, 1909  | Iowa State Teachers College               |
| <b>Missouri:</b>  |                |                                           |
| Kirksville....    | May 20, 1919   | Northeast Missouri State Teachers College |
| Warrensburg...    | May 20, 1919   | Central Missouri State Teachers College   |
| Cape Girardeau    | May 20, 1919   | Southeast Missouri State Teachers College |
| Springfield...    | May 20, 1919   | Southwest Missouri State Teachers College |
| Maryville.....    | May 20, 1919   | Northwest Missouri State Teachers College |
| <b>Minnesota:</b> |                |                                           |
| Winona.....       | April 13, 1921 | Winona State Teachers College             |
| Mankato.....      | April 13, 1921 | Mankato State Teachers College            |
| St. Cloud.....    | April 13, 1921 | St. Cloud State Teachers College          |
| Moorhead.....     | April 13, 1921 | Moorhead State Teachers College           |
| Duluth.....       | April 13, 1921 | Duluth State Teachers College             |
| Bemidji.....      | April 13, 1921 | Bemidji State Teachers College            |
| <b>Wisconsin:</b> |                |                                           |
| Platteville...    | May 11, 1925   | Platteville State Teachers College        |
| Whitewater....    | May 11, 1925   | Whitewater State Teachers College         |
| Oshkosh.....      | May 11, 1925   | Oshkosh State Teachers College            |
| River Falls...    | May 11, 1925   | River Falls State Teachers College        |
| Milwaukee.....    | May 11, 1925   | Milwaukee State Teachers College          |
| Stevens Point.    | May 11, 1925   | Stevens Point State Teachers College      |
| Superior.....     | May 11, 1925   | Superior State Teachers College           |
| LaCrosse.....     | May 11, 1925   | La Crosse State Teachers College          |
| Eau Claire....    | May 11, 1925   | Eau Claire State Teachers College         |
| <b>Indiana:</b>   |                |                                           |
| Terre Haute...    | March 7, 1929  | Indiana State Teachers College            |
| Muncie.....       | March 7, 1929  | Ball State Teachers College               |

the dates of legal change of the normal schools into teachers colleges, together with the new names by which the transformed institutions would henceforth be designated.

Inspection of the table shows that the first normal school in the Middle States to become known officially as a college was the school at Ypsilanti, Michigan. The college had been legalized in 1897. Other schools in Michigan were not termed teachers colleges until May, 1927. Thus Michigan was the first of the states of this study to establish a teachers college and the last of the eight states to complete the transition of all state normal schools into state teachers colleges. Illinois in 1907 empowered two of the normal schools to confer degrees, but delayed until 1921 extending that same power to the other state normal schools. Minnesota, Missouri, and Wisconsin were relatively slow in changing their normal schools into teachers colleges. Each of those states by single legislation made the complete transition. Ohio in 1902 created two normal colleges, one in connection with the Ohio University at Athens, and the other with Miami University at Oxford. In 1929 two independent colleges were created, one at Kent,<sup>1</sup> the other at Bowling Green.<sup>2</sup>

Even before they had been legalized as teachers colleges, the normal schools had sought to secure recognition by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and by the American Association of Teachers Colleges. In 1908 the Normal Department of the National Education Association promulgated a creed declaring for (1) high-school graduation for admission to the normal school; (2) two years of work for elementary-school teachers and four years of work for secondary-school teachers;

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<sup>1</sup>Laws of Ohio, 1935, sec. 7924.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

(3) the establishment of departments of special research; (4) courses of instruction for educational leadership; (5) a broadening of the normal-school curriculum to meet the needs of the public schools.<sup>1</sup>

In 1912 the Normal Department of the National Education Association set forth the following declaration of principles:

1. The twentieth century normal school is dedicated to higher education with the special function of preparing teachers for the rural schools, the elementary schools, and the high schools.
2. Its entrance requirements will be . . . . graduation from a four-year high school.
3. It will extend its courses of instruction and practices . . . . to four-year courses.
4. It will widely extend the field of professional experimentation and investigation.
5. It will try out its graduates as to their ability to teach and manage schools by such a period of practice teaching as will settle the case beyond peradventure.
6. It will plan effectively to train teachers for rural schools, to stimulate and foster every educative agency toward the development of rural community life, and to elevate the professional position of the rural teacher.
7. It will set up definite ends of education that will relate themselves to the life of the people in all departments of human interest and will thus become a great social energy.<sup>2</sup>

At the Milwaukee meeting in 1919 the Normal Department of the National Education Association went on record as favoring the establishment of three- and four-year courses in the normal school; the setting up of a salary schedule both to attract and to hold the best talent in the country; the provision of buildings and equipment for the normal school comparable to those of the liberal

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<sup>1</sup>J. G. Crabbe, "How Far Should Principles of Standardization Be Followed by the Normal Schools?" Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1917, p. 386.

<sup>2</sup>YearBook, The American Association of Teachers Colleges, 1922, p. 30.

arts colleges; the organization of a publicity campaign "to sell" the normal school to the people; and the provision of extension work for the improvement of teachers in service.<sup>1</sup>

The Committee on Teachers Colleges of the National Council on Education on February 27, 1922, at the meeting in Chicago reached at least two conclusions of significance: (1) Whenever a normal school shall have attained senior-college rating, it should adopt the name "college," for the term "school" commonly refers to any institution below college rank; (2) teachers colleges should meet the standards of traditional colleges with respect to entrance requirements, course content, academic preparation of faculty, salaries, student load, and teacher load. They can expect to have the necessary respect of the liberal arts colleges and the universities only when they will have become thoroughly standardized.<sup>2</sup>

In 1920 of a total of thirty-five Class A teachers colleges, that is teachers colleges that had conferred degrees, sixteen were located as follows in the Middle States: three in Illinois; one in Indiana; three in Michigan; five in Missouri; and four in Ohio.<sup>3</sup>

Homer H. Seerley, chairman of the committee on listing teachers colleges in the Directory of the United States Bureau of Education, reported that for the 1921-22 directory the teachers colleges had been classified as four-year collegiate, degree-conferring institutions for the preparation of teachers.<sup>4</sup> Membership

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<sup>1</sup>Proceedings of the National Education Association, 1919,  
p. 221.

<sup>2</sup>YearBook, The American Association of Teachers Colleges,  
1922, p. 30.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., 1923, p. 21.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 25.



in the American Association of Teachers Colleges for 1929-30 included all the state schools for the preparation of teachers in the eight Middle States of this study.<sup>1</sup>

At this point it seems worth while to establish the specific date for the requirement by teachers colleges of graduation from high school as a standard of admission to the school curriculums, thereby to show that the teachers colleges found it difficult to carry into practice the setting up of advanced academic standards.

Charles A. Harper says that as early as 1900 the Illinois State Normal University required high-school graduation or its equivalent for admission to the regular three-year course, but that there were a number of other courses; hence the catalogues do not tell the complete story.<sup>2</sup> For a long time the school considered the first-grade teachers' certificate as equivalent to high-school graduation. From 1920 to 1935 the school accepted some mature unclassified students and holders of first-grade certificates. It was not until 1935 that no one could be admitted without a high-school diploma. The same was true, says Harper, for the other Illinois normal schools and teachers colleges. In 1908 the Indiana State Normal School at Terre Haute required high-school graduation for admission to the college curriculums.<sup>3</sup>

The Iowa State Normal School had in 1888 a high-school division to which were admitted only graduates of four-year high schools. From that date, entrance to collegiate curriculums required fifteen units in specified and elective subjects except

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., 1930, pp. 158-60.

<sup>2</sup>Charles A. Harper, Associate Professor of History, the Illinois State Normal University, Letter, September, 1940.

<sup>3</sup>Mary Jo Ferguson, Assistant Registrar, Indiana State Teachers College, Letter, September 14, 1940.

that for the year 1909-10 when only fourteen units were required in accordance with the requirements of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for that year.<sup>1</sup> In 1909 all the two-year curriculums were placed on a collegiate basis requiring for admission fifteen units of secondary-school work. However, the three-year normal course, sub-collegiate in character and not requiring high-school preparation, was continued until 1918. That year all sub-collegiate work was discontinued except for teachers in rural schools. The elementary rural-teacher curriculum was discontinued in 1924, but a few sub-collegiate courses were offered as late as 1929. Until 1933 the Iowa law permitted teachers to secure county and state certificates by examination without reference to educational training. In order to accommodate persons desiring such certification the Iowa State Teachers College offered the sub-collegiate work listed as "normal work." Students past twenty-one years of age were admitted to collegiate work as special students, but could not be listed on a collegiate curriculum for graduation until fifteen units of entrance credit had been secured. Since 1910 the University of Iowa, the Iowa State College, and the Iowa State Teachers College have an agreement to maintain uniform requirements for entrance upon collegiate curriculums; and since 1937 the three state institutions for higher learning have had an agreement that the entrance deficiencies of an adult special student may be waived in case the student passes the placement tests in a satisfactory manner and has a scholarship record which averages "C" on the first thirty semester hours of college work that is undertaken.

On January 23, 1903, the State Board of Education in

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<sup>1</sup>Selmer C. Larson, Registrar, Iowa State Teachers College, Letter, September 6, 1940.

Michigan took action stating that only graduates of the twelfth grade of school could be admitted to college work.<sup>1</sup> Persons coming with less preparation would need to enter preparatory courses. By legislative enactment in 1919 all the state teachers colleges in Missouri became four-year institutions. That year Kirksville State Teachers College first required graduation from high school for entrance.<sup>2</sup> It is inferred that the same was true for the other state teachers college in the state.

In a resolution passed by the Board of Regents of Normal Schools in 1913 Wisconsin set high-school graduation as a future requirement for admission to the state normal schools.<sup>3</sup> The resolution seems to have become effective in 1916. A clause in the resolution, however, said that teachers with a first-grade certificate and four years of teaching experience would be considered as having the equivalent of high-school graduation. The Milwaukee State Normal School had from its organization in 1885 required for entrance graduation from a four-year high school.

From the beginning of teacher-education in Ohio, graduation from high school was required for admission to any of the state teacher-education institutions.

The period of transition of the normal schools into teachers colleges was one of trial and error, of modifications and adjustments, of gradual growth and change. It was not easy always to carry into practice advanced academic standards. Hampering influences constantly came into play, and adjustments had to be made

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<sup>1</sup>J. M. Munson, President Michigan State Normal College, Letter, September 19, 1940. (Cited the Minutes of the State Board, 1903, p. 173.)

<sup>2</sup>Walter H. Ryle, President Northeast Missouri Teachers College, Letter, September 13, 1940.

<sup>3</sup>Edgar G. Doudna, Secretary of the Board of Regents of Normal Schools, Letter, September 9, 1940.

as the occasion demanded.

Transition of University Departments of Education  
into Schools or Colleges of Education

The chief facts concerning the change of departments of education into schools or colleges are revealed in Table 16.

TABLE 16

ESTABLISHMENT OF SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES OF EDUCATION  
IN STATE UNIVERSITIES OF THE MIDDLE STATES<sup>a</sup>

| University   | Date | Name                      |
|--------------|------|---------------------------|
| Illinois.... | 1905 | School of Education       |
|              | 1918 | College of Education      |
| Minnesota... | 1905 | College of Education      |
| Missouri.... | 1905 | Missouri Teachers College |
|              | 1909 | School of Education       |
| Iowa.....    | 1907 | School of Education       |
|              | 1913 | College of Education      |
| Ohio State.. | 1907 | College of Education      |
| Indiana..... | 1908 | College of Education      |
| Michigan.... | 1921 | School of Education       |
| Wisconsin... | 1930 | School of Education       |

<sup>a</sup>Data were secured from catalogs of institutions and from historical sketches of various sources.

Inspection of the table shows that the transition of departments of education in schools or colleges extended over a period of twenty-five years, from 1905 to 1930. Four of the eight universities established schools of education, three established colleges of education, and Missouri termed the reorganized department the Missouri Teachers College. Iowa established a school of education in 1907, but changed it to a college in 1913. Illinois established

a school of education in 1905, but changed it to a college in 1918. It is to be noted that both Michigan and Wisconsin were comparatively slow in effecting changes in terminology for their teacher-education departments. That fact is impressive inasmuch as Michigan had always been a leader in educational progress and Wisconsin had always borrowed freely from Michigan and followed closely the educational patterns of that state.

Three major factors operated in the transition of departments of education into schools and colleges: (1) weaknesses of the departments of education; (2) development of a science of education; and (3) recognition by colleges and universities of teaching as a profession analogous to the other professions.

In chapter vi of this study it was pointed out that departments of education were organized and controlled within the liberal arts colleges as subdepartments; professional work was meager and was often administered by men lacking scientific preparation for the work they had been assigned to do; facilities for student-teaching had proved inadequate; tremendous expansion in public education had occasioned introduction into the program of the high school such new vocational subjects as agriculture, manual arts, household arts, physical education, and business education; mere departments of education were inadequate for meeting the new demands inasmuch as they lacked physical equipment, an adequate faculty, and an enriched program of studies.

Of singular importance was the development of a science of education effected through the discovery of scientific principles as guides for educational practice, through evaluations of the results of education, through publications of the National Bureau of Education and of large numbers of school surveys, and through contributions of such foundations as the Educational Divi-



sion of the Russell Sage Foundation, the Carnegie Foundation, the General Education Board, the Commonwealth Fund, and other similar foundations operating independently. Larger city school systems also instituted bureaus for the study of educational problems. Leaders in this wide-spread scientific movement were men like G. Stanley Hall, John Dewey, J. M. Rice, Charles H. Judd, James R. Angell, George D. Strayer, Edward L. Thorndike, Elwood P. Cubberley, and Leonard P. Ayres. Much of the work of these men was done in the late nineteenth and the early twentieth centuries.

About 1900, colleges and universities had definitely recognized education as a profession analogous to that of law, medicine, and engineering; furthermore, they recognized education as a profession demanding a separate school or college free to determine its own entrance requirements, functions, organization, budget, faculty, and program. With special funds for support of research and with scientific-minded leaders to execute educational projects, colleges and schools of education could accomplish much for the improvement of educational practice. The appointment of professors of education and the development of schools and colleges of education were the answer, says Bagley, to the demand from the high-school field that teachers be given some instruction in the art of adapting educational materials to the mass mind.<sup>1</sup>

The essential features of the newly organized schools and colleges were (1) inclusion of types of work not ordinarily offered in the traditional colleges, the program of the new school embodying correlation of content and of methods courses and the differentiation of courses of study for the specific needs of teachers;

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<sup>1</sup>W. C. Bagley, "The University School of Education as a Source of Educational Leadership," "The Changing Educational World," pp. 82-83. Edited by Alvin C. Eurich. Minneapolis: The University of Minnesota Press, 1931.

(2) conference of degrees by the schools and colleges independently of the liberal arts college; (3) co-ordination of the school or college with other schools and colleges of the university; and (4) establishment of laboratory and co-operating schools for experimentation and for supervised observation and directed student-teaching.

Naturally not all these features were immediately achieved. The liberal arts colleges were at first unwilling to give the new schools and colleges free hand. For example, when the question of reorganization came up at the University of Illinois in 1905, although the university trustees had sanctioned the establishment of the school of education, the senate committee appointed to study the proposals recommended that all university instructors offering professional work be organized as a "Faculty of the School of Education."<sup>1</sup> Reorganization was not completed at the University of Illinois until 1920.<sup>2</sup> In 1905 the school of education in the Ohio State University achieved complete independent status, owing probably to the desire of the state legislature to establish at the university a normal school or teachers college.<sup>3</sup> Although the department of education in the University of Iowa nominally became a college of education in 1913, enrollment in the college continued to be reported by the university registrar without differentiation from the college of liberal arts.<sup>4</sup> The school of education in the University of Wisconsin was until 1930 controlled jointly by the department of education and by other university departments offering methods courses.<sup>5</sup> The Indiana Survey Commission pointed out in 1921-22 that dominance of the liberal arts college

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<sup>1</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., p. 34.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 35.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 36.

over the school of education was a primary handicap in the preparation of teachers.<sup>1</sup>

At the present time schools and colleges of education are organized on a more or less definite plan. That for the school of education in the University of Michigan is presented in detail for purposes of illustration. Calvin O. Davis has given the salient points in the history of teacher education in the University of Michigan from agitations as early as 1837 up to and including the facts in 1939.<sup>2</sup>

From 1879 to 1921 the professional preparation of teachers was carried forward in the University of Michigan under a department in the College of Literature, Science, and the Arts. That plan had prevailed even though in 1907 the name of the department had been changed to that of "Education." As the result of the scientific movement in education new courses were constantly organized dealing with educational psychology, educational statistics, tests and measurements, school administration, school supervision, instructional methods, vocational guidance, and physical training. Gradually departmental headings were set up that now number seven; each department has its chairman elected by his colleagues. These chairmen collectively organize and administer the work of the school of education. The three general officers of the school are the dean, the secretary, and the recorder. There are four standing administrative committees and numerous special committees, such as the Friendship Committee, the Committee on Candidacy for the Teachers' Certificate, and the Editorial Board of the School of Education Bulletin. Other organizational

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Calvin O. Davis, "Teacher Training at the University of Michigan," University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin, II, No. 3 (December, 1939), 40-41.

units are the Bureau of Educational References and Research and the two laboratory schools--The University High School opened in 1924, and the University Elementary School completed in 1930 and finally articulated with the seventh grade of the high school in 1937.

When the school of education was established in 1921 entire responsibility for teacher education and certification was turned over to its faculty.<sup>1</sup> In 1937, by law, all teacher certificating powers in Michigan were vested exclusively in the State Board of Education. The requirement was made effective that all candidates for graduation make formal application to the recorder for credentials. The recorder checked all records and certified all candidates to the state board which in turn issued the legal certificate.<sup>2</sup> By the new certification code of July, 1939, all "blanket" certificates were abolished,<sup>3</sup> and students were required to elect one definite type of school work, such as elementary, secondary, or junior college. Also they were required to have directed teaching. Since the school of education could not furnish directed teaching in grades below the seventh, the new code forced the reorganization of policy. By arrangement with various teachers colleges of the state--and with certain other institutions--the school of education developed a plan whereby students may spend one semester of their senior year in another institution to secure specific training for elementary-school work not available at the university. The usual residence requirement is then waived and an elementary-school certificate is awarded to the student upon his graduation.

The University High School serves both as a laboratory

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 43.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 47.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 46.

for the scientific study of secondary-school problems and as a school for observational work and directed teaching. Since the head of each of the departments of instruction within this school is a member of the faculty of the School of Education itself, and since each conducts the special methods courses for candidates majoring or minoring in his field, and since each supervises the directed teaching of his students, there is a continuing tie-up and correlation of theory and practice.<sup>1</sup>

The University Elementary School serves chiefly for the purpose of educational research and for the study of child development. No directed teaching for the typical undergraduate is permitted, but advanced students with considerable teaching experience may conduct experimental class work.<sup>2</sup> The high school emphasizes the practical training of secondary-school teachers; the elementary school emphasizes research. Taken together the two provide instructional facilities ranging from pre-kindergarten work to twelfth-grade graduation.

The School of Education offers both undergraduate and graduate work. The announcement of the school covering the work for the academic year and the summer session of 1930-40 listed a total of 223 distinct courses.<sup>3</sup> Of that number 62 were classified as designed solely for the undergraduate; 88 were open to both undergraduate and graduate students; and 75 were on the graduate level only.

The school of education in the University of Indiana has the status of full equality with the other professional schools of the university.<sup>4</sup> Any candidate for a teacher's license must

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 54-55.    <sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 55.    <sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 51.

<sup>4</sup>Indiana University Bulletin, XXXVIII, No. 11 (June, 1940),



meet the requirements for a degree. Most of the students work toward the Bachelor of Science Degree in Education. Candidates for certain licenses may obtain them and work for a degree in some other school of the university. For instance, candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Science in the School of Business may qualify for the special high-school teachers' license in commercial subjects by taking general and professional academic work amounting to forty-eight semester hours, with specialization in materials and methods of teaching in the option in which the license is issued. The special high-school teachers' license may be obtained also in home economics, library science, music, and physical education.

In the University of Missouri the School of Education is one of nine major divisions.<sup>1</sup> The classrooms, laboratories, libraries of the entire university are available to students in the School of Education. Definite attempt is made to eliminate sharp distinctions usually drawn and to unite the whole into one continuous system of education. It is significant that the school offers both the research type of degree--Master of Arts degree and the Doctor of Philosophy--and the professional type of degree--the Master of Education and the Doctor of Education.

The College of Education in the Ohio State University includes four departments offering both undergraduate and graduate work.<sup>2</sup> To be admitted to the college the student must undergo the University Intelligence Test and may enter upon a professional curriculum only when he has passed the test satisfactorily. A student of mature years who is unable to meet some of the regular

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<sup>1</sup>The University of Missouri Bulletin (Catalogue Number), 1939-40, XLI, No. 6, 185, 186, and 218.

<sup>2</sup>The Ohio State University Bulletin, XLIV, No. 22 (May, 1940), 13-14.

requirements for entrance may matriculate for specified courses for which he can qualify. All curriculums in the college lead to the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education. Work for the degree is pursued in all departments of the university. Most of the graduate work is carried on in the Graduate School of the university.

In the College of Education of the University of Iowa courses are open only to juniors, seniors, and graduate students.<sup>1</sup> Graduate students in education are registered in the Graduate College and all degrees are conferred by that college. The degree conferred by the College of Education is the Bachelor of Science in School Supervision. In no case will the degree be conferred upon students who have not completed in the university twelve hours in education in courses approved for that degree. The College of Education reserves the right to require such courses in education as are necessary to give a well-balanced training in supervision.

In the University of Minnesota students enroll as pre-education students in the junior college.<sup>2</sup> All students who desire to prepare for teaching, if they have not enrolled as freshmen in one of the four- or five-year curriculums, must register in the College of Education at the beginning of the junior year.

Upon entrance the student is given a general examination designed to show capacity to pursue professional curriculums in education. Students who have had two full years of college work but who lack specific entrance requirements may register in the

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<sup>1</sup>The University of Iowa Publication (Catalogue Number), 1939-40, New Series Number 1138, pp. 143-46.

<sup>2</sup>The Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, College of Education, 1938-40, XLI, No. 43 (August, 1938), 7, 9, 10, 11, 14, and 15.

College of Education and make up deficiencies after enrollment. Graduates from fully accredited teachers colleges are admitted to the College of Education with ninety "blanket" credits accepted in lieu of the work of the junior college in the university. Teachers of experience who are unable to meet the regular requirements for admission are permitted to enroll as unclassified students. The minimum residence requirement is two years beginning as soon as entrance requirements have been fulfilled. Students graduating from the College of Education receive the degree of Bachelor of Science.

In the College of Education of the University of Illinois all the introductory courses and most of the advanced courses offered are open to students enrolled in other colleges and schools of the university as well as to students in the College of Education.<sup>1</sup> Candidates for degrees in other schools and colleges while studying there the subjects they desire to teach may fulfill the requirements for teachers' certificates by electing courses in education. Each candidate for the baccalaureate degree in the College of Education must meet the general requirements of the university with respect to registration, residence, fees, military science, and physical education. Except for the curriculum in industrial education, which begins with the freshman year, the two years of study required for admission to the college curriculums may be done in any college of the university. The Bachelor's degree is conferred upon any student who satisfactorily completes a curriculum in one of the schools or colleges of the university. Any student who has received one Bachelor's degree may receive a second degree provided that all specified requirements are met

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<sup>1</sup>University of Illinois Bulletin, XXXVIII, No. 39 (May 21, 1940), 82 and 159.

for both degrees. Students in the College of Education who are preparing for graduate work are required to arrange their undergraduate programs to meet the requirements for admission to the Graduate School organized in 1906.

In 1930 the regents of the University of Wisconsin established a school of education of college rank and gave it jurisdiction over the undergraduate preparation of teachers.<sup>1</sup> The school provides professional preparation for teachers of academic high-school and junior-high-school subjects; it prepares playground and recreation supervisors, high-school librarians, principals, superintendents, and supervisors. The faculty is made up of (1) the faculties of the Department of Education, Educational Methods, Art Education, and Physical Education for men and women, offering courses in educational methods; and (2) the faculties of the departments in the College of Letters and Science and of Agriculture, offering courses of junior and senior grade in various teaching majors and minors. The school grants the following undergraduate degrees: Bachelor of Science in Education; Bachelor of Science in Physical Education; Bachelor of Science in Art Education; Bachelor of Science in Applied Arts; and jointly with the College of Agriculture, the Bachelor of Science in Agriculture and Education, and the Bachelor of Science in Home Economics and Education. Only students who qualify for a degree in the School of Education may receive the University Teachers' Certificate.

The detailed descriptions of the schools and colleges of education in the universities of the Middle States have been presented to show that mere departments of education in the liberal arts colleges did not meet adequately the educational demands of the first third of the twentieth century. Not only had there

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<sup>1</sup>Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, School of Education, 1939-40, General Series No. 2207, p. 405.

been unparalleled expansion in the field of secondary education, creating an unprecedented demand for secondary-school teachers, but there had been also unparalleled expansion in the scientific study of education. Research in education that had its beginning in the latter decade of the nineteenth century had gained sufficient momentum in the second decade of the twentieth century to demand wide recognition on the part of school people generally. By that time new techniques and new devices that had been developed and applied to the study of educational problems were yielding results through analyses of the learning processes, through school surveys, and through objective testing, results sufficient to warrant the inclusion of these techniques and devices in the program for the education of teachers. The programs for schools and colleges of education expanded, therefore, not only to meet the demands of the public for a larger number of high-school teachers, but also to meet the demands of the public for a more scientific approach to the various problems in the field of education.

#### Summary

At the beginning of the twentieth century no institution was available for providing an adequate supply of professionally educated teachers for the high schools of the Middle States. Graduates of the liberal arts colleges had received little or no professional preparation. Graduates of normal schools had received some professional background, but were defective in academic preparation. Departments of education in state universities could not supply an adequate number of teachers, nor could they provide teachers qualified professionally for high-school instruction. The type of institution in which professional preparation could best be offered became a vital issue. Certain leaders argued that



the work could be given satisfactorily only in the normal school; others were equally convinced that professional work could be satisfactorily provided only in a school having access to a liberal arts college. A few believed that inborn qualities and academic education were sufficient. Advocates of the normal school recognized that in order to continue to prepare teachers of secondary grade, the normal school must meet collegiate standards. They, therefore, prevailed upon the different state legislatures to provide the means essential for collegiate standards. By 1920 many of the normal schools in the Middle States were offering from two to four years of college work. Courses offered, the quality of work done, and admission requirements, all were on a par with general university standards. The period of transformation of the thirty-six normal schools into teachers colleges extended over a period of thirty years, from 1899 to 1929. By 1921 twenty normal schools had become teachers' colleges; nine of the sixteen normal schools yet to be transformed were in the state of Wisconsin alone. The period of transition of departments of education in state universities coincided approximately with the transformation of the normal schools, from 1905 to 1930. Schools and colleges were developed both to provide an adequate number of professionally qualified teachers for the high schools and to meet the demands of society for a scientific approach to the study of educational problems.

## CHAPTER XIV

### CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AFFECTING THE PROGRAM FOR TEACHER EDUCATION

In the preceding chapter consideration was given to the development of institutions for supplying an adequate number of teachers for the high schools. Along with that development there evolved a curriculum for supplying better-qualified teachers for the public schools. The present chapter continues the preceding discussion by giving special consideration to three phases of curriculum development: (1) development of the curriculum for general education, (2) development of the curriculum for specialization, and (3) development of the curriculum for professional education.

#### Development of the Curriculum for General Education<sup>1</sup>

Academic work in the program for the education of teachers has been from the outset affected materially by the curriculum of the liberal arts college. Early in its history the liberal arts college offered courses limited in scope and mainly prescribed. As knowledge increased and courses multiplied, the program became largely elective. That phase in the history of Harvard College described by President Eliot in 1885 illustrates the change from a curriculum of prescription to a curriculum of election.

During the nine years from 1854 to 1863 I became intimately acquainted with the workings with this mainly prescribed curriculum from the point of view of a tutor and assistant pro-

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<sup>1</sup>In presenting the development of the curriculum for general education it has seemed wise to begin with the elective system which had its beginning some thirty years prior to the period under consideration.

fessor. . . . After a separation from the University of six years . . . . I went back as president in 1869 to find a tolerably broad elective system already under way. The wishes of the governing board and external circumstances all favoring it, the system rapidly developed. Required subjects were gradually abolished or pushed back; so that first the Senior year was made elective, then the Junior, then the Sophomore, and finally in June last the Freshman was made chiefly elective.<sup>1</sup>

Sooner or later most other colleges followed the example of Harvard in substituting an elective system for a system of prescription; and the characteristic pattern of the college curriculum became free-elective. The change was occasioned by the emergence of certain intellectual and social factors, such as the development of the natural sciences and their implications for social amelioration, particularly in the fields of medicine, industry, and agriculture.

In 1861 appeared an essay by Herbert Spencer entitled "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth?"<sup>2</sup> Spencer's answer to the question condemned the curriculum of his time and assigned educational values of the greatest significance to science. The traditional subjects of Latin, Greek, and mathematics likewise yielded a coordinate place to English, French, German, history, and the natural sciences. As a result of scientific research, subjects greatly subdivided. Eventually the number of subjects became so great that electives became a necessity. No students could in four years take all the courses offered in the liberal arts college.

The free-elective system did not prove entirely satisfactory. Practices revealed that when students had selected courses in accordance with their inclinations, the result had been not proper balance between education and special education, but either

<sup>1</sup>Charles W. Eliot, Educational Reform, p. 137. New York: The Century Company, 1909.

<sup>2</sup>Herbert Spencer, "What Knowledge Is of Most Worth?" Education, pp. 5-33. New York: A. L. Burt Company, Publishers, 1861.

too narrow specialization or too general distribution. The extent to which the system of free election had offered opportunities for abuse in the educational program is illustrated in the following statement with respect to the situation in Harvard College: "Under the elective system which prevailed prior to 1910, a student in Harvard College could obtain his degree by passing English A and any sixteen courses 'however unrelated they might be or however narrow his range of work.'"<sup>1</sup>

As a pioneer in the establishment of a free-elective system, Harvard attempted to correct the abuses of the system. A committee of the Harvard staff was appointed to formulate a plan whereby students would be prevented from unwise selection of courses. In his annual report for 1908-09 President Lowell stated that the value of the new system depended "upon the mode of insuring a sufficient amount of concentration on the one hand, and broad enough distribution on the other."<sup>2</sup> In order to insure both concentration and distribution the system provided that a student should take at least six of his courses in one department and some courses in each of four general groups; namely, the arts of expression, the natural or inductive sciences, the inductive social sciences, and the abstract or deductive sciences. The program at Harvard typifies the practice in which constants insure concentration in certain fields.

Courses commonly designated as constants are intended to extend the general education of students by providing a background of knowledge for later specialization through the completion of

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<sup>1</sup>A. Chester Hanford, "Recent Developments in Harvard College," Five College Plans, p. 33. New York: Columbia University Press, 1931.

<sup>2</sup>A. Lawrence Lowell, At War with Academic Traditions in America, p. 240. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1934.

majors and minors. The constants usually consist of two types of subjects--those designed to increase facility in the acquisition of ideas and those designed to extend ideas. The former are found in the language-arts field and in mathematics; they serve as a means to an end, not as an end in themselves. The latter consist of the so-called content subjects found in the natural and the social sciences and in the humanities. The constants, therefore, provide for the extension of general education beyond that offered in the typical high school.

Variations in practice show that divergent views exist with respect to the relative emphasis placed upon prescription and upon election. Some colleges prescribe a large part of their curriculums, particularly in the first two years. A few colleges hold to the principle of election, though election is usually confined to courses that are related and that constitute a sequence. Divergent practices are based on two different conceptions of education. The one holds that there is a basic body of knowledge which satisfies common needs; the other conceives education as the cultivation of definite abilities and attitudes of mind and holds that the imposition of prescription in terms of subject matter will interfere with rather than facilitate the cultivation of abilities and attitudes.

In order to validate the conception of a common body of knowledge, advocates turn always to the common needs inherent in society. These are illustrated, in part at least, by the universal need in a democracy for common knowledge concerning certain issues of government, of civic enterprises, of home life, of leisure time, and of physical efficiency. Added to the general need for common knowledge concerning the foregoing issues are the common needs for an adequate command of language and for a wholesome



philosophy of life.<sup>1</sup>

Those who conceive that the end of education is the cultivation of abilities and attitudes argue that prescribed subject matter is not necessary for the purpose of their cultivation, that these products are developed through an intensive study of a limited body of subject matter varying in accordance with the inclinations and the talents of students, and that students should restrict their efforts to limited fields of knowledge, selecting the fields that appeal to their interests and to their inherent capacities. They do not recognize a common need in terms of a common body of knowledge; nor do they stress specific abilities and attitudes; they believe that the end of education is adequately expressed in such terms as precision, appreciation, emotional response, opinionation, and reflective synthesis.<sup>2</sup> It seems that their conception of education may be accurately expressed by the phrase "power to think."

The preceding terms imply general abilities and attitudes that the advocates of a prescribed curriculum would not deny as legitimate products of general education. The different concepts of education indicate, therefore, that the disagreement is not necessarily with respect to the final outcome which college education should produce, but rather with respect to the means by which that outcome should be attained. Those who advocate a curriculum constituted of a common body of knowledge have coined the phrase "general education." As commonly applied to the college curriculum,

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<sup>1</sup>A. J. Brumbaugh, "The Case of Prescription," Current Issues in Higher Education, I, 3. Edited by W. S. Gray. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937.

<sup>2</sup>Henry M. Wriston, "Nature, Scope, and Essential Elements in General Education," General Education: Its Nature, Scope, and Essential Elements, VI, 9-16. Edited by W. S. Gray. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934.

"general education" is rapidly supplanting the familiar phrase "liberal education."

At the outset, higher education in America was vocational in character. Colleges were founded to educate for the professions, originally for the ministry. As colleges multiplied, producing a larger product than could be absorbed by the professions, a new phrase was needed to describe education that could no longer be appropriately referred to as professional. The term "liberal" was coined to describe the education provided by colleges for the purpose of broadening the intellectual horizons of students. It was argued then as now that every one with the intellectual capacity and the financial means should be liberally educated for the satisfaction that such education brings as well as for preparation for entering the professions.

It is now generally maintained that every one should have the equivalent of at least two years of college work. Evidence of the demand is seen in the rapid multiplication of junior colleges and in the reorganization of the first two years of work in colleges of longer standing, such as liberal arts colleges and universities. College education now is recognized not as liberal education for the selected few, but as general education for all members of society regardless of their economic and intellectual status, except for those who are either mentally or volitionally incapacitated.

The concept of general education presented in this discussion seems to be generally acceptable to those who are giving serious consideration to the problem. Wriston, for instance, refers to general education as "education useful to all who possess it, at all times, and under all circumstances."<sup>1</sup> Judd refers to

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 1.

general education in contrast to vocational education, but at the same time rejects the word "liberal" as an unsatisfactory term to describe general education. According to his concept, therefore, general education is neither vocational nor liberal: "It is the education which everyone must have in order to live intelligently in a modern community."<sup>1</sup> General, he says, means belonging to everyone. The two definitions of general education appear to be in agreement. Accordingly general education is not only useful to all who possess it, under all circumstances, but it must be possessed by all for intelligent participation in community life.

The concept of general education may be further elaborated by presenting the definition formulated for the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools by its Committee on the Revision of Standards.

By general education is meant that type of education which acquaints a student with the facts and the modes of thought in the chief fields of knowledge, such as natural science, literature, history and other social sciences, languages, and the fine arts, without the intent to fit him for any vocation in particular. In the main this type of education is the function of the secondary schools and of the first two years in institutions that accept students directly from high school. In some institutions the period of general education may be extended to four years beyond the high school.<sup>2</sup>

Inasmuch as general education is a present-day criterion for the evaluation of colleges in the North Central Association it is of special interest in this study. General education, considered as a function of all colleges accepting students directly from high school, should deal with the facts and the modes of thought in the chief fields of knowledge: natural science, literature, history and other social sciences, languages, and the fine

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<sup>1</sup>Charles H. Judd, "What is General Education?" Bulletin of the Department of Secondary School Principals of the National Education Association, XXI, No. 68 (October, 1937), 14.

<sup>2</sup>Melvin E. Haggerty, The Evaluation of Higher Institutions, III, 103. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937.

arts. The education to be provided by the colleges of the North Central Association is a continuation of secondary education. It should be confined to the first two years of college work, except that some institutions may want to extend it to accommodate liberal arts colleges that have their work organized on a four-year basis.

The period of general education designated by the Committee on the Revision of Standards seems to be generally accepted in both theory and practice. In a survey of the literature on the subject, the opinions of current writers have been presented. A statement of the summary follows: "Current writers are in fair agreement, with a few striking exceptions, that general education is what is supposed to take place in educational institutions through and including the first two years of college."<sup>1</sup> A few educators even go so far as to advocate recognizing the end of general education by awarding a Bachelor's degree at the completion of the second year of college work. The reason for advocating such procedure is admirably set forth in the following paragraph.

In the junior college which is a part of a four-year college or university, as well as in the separate junior college, the completion of its work has in this country generally come to be regarded as marking the termination of general education, i.e. general in contrast with professional education or intensive study in a relatively restricted academic field. True there are those who regret this condition, but it is already fairly completely established in our pattern of higher education. Since this point marks a break in the character of the program of education, it would seem to be the logical place at which to award a Bachelor's degree.<sup>2</sup>

The development of the teachers college and the schools

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<sup>1</sup>William J. Haggerty, "Current Issues in General Education," The School Review, XLVI (September, 1938), 497.

<sup>2</sup>George A. Works, "Arguments in Favor of Granting a Bachelor's Degree at the End of the Junior College Period," Current Issues in Higher Education: Proceedings of the Institute for Administrative Officers of Higher Education, IX, 3-4. Edited by W. S. Gray. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937.

and colleges of education was contemporary with the marked changes made in the traditional colleges. Therefore, the teachers colleges and the schools and colleges of education were confronted with one of two alternatives: Either they could imitate the traditional program of the liberal arts college, or, like the more progressive liberal arts colleges, they could pioneer in developing a new program in response to the demands of new social conditions.

#### Development of the Curriculum for Specialization

Although general education constitutes the major element in the academic preparation for teaching, provision is made also for intensive study of the problems in the teaching areas in which the prospective teacher is interested and in which he will probably find employment. Specialization implies particular interests and their cultivation in special subject matter. Some educators maintain that the function of the curriculum for both the elementary and the secondary school should be restricted to general education; others maintain that the high school should provide vocational education as well as general.<sup>1</sup>

About 1880, the idea of domestic arts and of industrial education for the working classes occasioned introduction into the high schools of cooking, sewing, manual training, and home economics. Specialized preparation of teachers became immediately necessary. The regular classroom teachers were equipped neither by education nor by experience to carry forward the new educational program. Expansion of the high-school program made imperative the reorganization of all materials of instruction and demanded special

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<sup>1</sup>Henry C. Morrison holds to the first point of view, Franklin Bobbitt, to the second. See Henry C. Morrison, The Curriculum and the Common School. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940. See also Franklin Bobbitt, The Curriculum of Modern Education. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1941.



education even in the academic field. Curriculums had to be differentiated, for not all teachers need the same type of preparation once they have received the general knowledge that every good citizen should possess. Teachers in the junior high school needed a preparation that was a combination of elementary and of secondary elements.<sup>1</sup>

Luckey points out another factor that led to the need for specialized education. At the outset, the primary aim of every school in this country whether lower or higher was to impart knowledge rather than to produce knowledge. As the scientific movement in education swept the country during the latter part of the nineteenth century, colleges and universities became institutions for investigation and research. The high schools were inevitably affected, standing as they did between the instructional work of the lower school and the specialization of the higher school.<sup>2</sup> The assumption that general education was complete and that it adequately met the requirements for complete living no longer held true. Need for some degree of specialization became generally recognized, the amount and the kind to be determined by the nature of the work the prospective teacher intended to do.

The University of Iowa took the initial step in the Middle States toward supplying prospective teachers with specialized education. In 1882 announcement was made that professors in the academic departments of the university would lecture on the special methods of teaching their subjects in the high schools. The lectures were concerned more with subject matter, however, than with pedagogy.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., p. 71.

<sup>2</sup>Luckey, op. cit., pp. 59-60.

<sup>3</sup>Hubbell, op. cit., pp. 54-55.

By the questionnaire method Luckey in 1900 revealed the growing conviction among educators for the need of specialized education for high-school teachers. Of the responses, 34 per cent of normal-school presidents and 82 per cent of professors of education expressed the opinion that specialized education for high-school teachers was desirable. Among the exponents of that belief were Hinsdale of Michigan, Major of Ohio State, McConnell of Iowa, Bergstrom of Indiana, Brooks of Illinois, and O'Shea of Wisconsin.<sup>1</sup>

Intensity rather than extensity of specialization took place. The result was overspecialization, with teachers not prepared for the work they were assigned to do. In the first place, they were given teaching assignments beyond the range of their preparation; that is, they were required to teach subjects for which they had no preparation beyond their general education; in the second place, their specialization had taken them so far into the technicalities of their subjects that they found it difficult to keep their teaching within the range of the maturity of their pupils.

At the present time, in the program for the professional education of teachers, provision is usually made for specialization through a system of majors and minors. The term "major" denotes the work undertaken by the student in the department of knowledge to which he chiefly devotes his energies in order to receive his degree and a license to teach. A major represents the subjects or the subject-matter field to which the student directs the greater amount of his time. The term "minor" designates the work of secondary interest to the students. Generally a minor subject is closely related to the major; to the minor, the student

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<sup>1</sup>Luckey, *op. cit.*, pp. 214-28.

simply devotes less time than to the major. The system of majors and minors varies in accordance with the underlying principles of specialization. One principle is that majors and minors should be based upon the academic and the special subjects of the traditional curriculum. Specialization then is narrow and usually coincides with the departmental organization of the institution in which it is found. A second principle is that specialization should be in broad fields of subject matter. This principle is usually applied in institutions where divisional organization is found.

The traditional type of specialization is presented in a study reported in the National Survey of the Education of Teachers.<sup>1</sup> The study deals only with specialization in the four-year differentiated curriculums. Data were secured by the analyses of sixty-six teachers-college and normal-school catalogues. The study reveals that majors comprise from a third to a fifth of the total amount of a four-year curriculum. The magnitude of the major is greater for such special subjects as art, commercial education, and home economics than for academic majors with which the student probably has already had a great deal of contact in his program of general education. On the other hand, a higher percentage of students take work outside their major fields of interest in the academic subjects than in the special subjects. Social science, English, mathematics, physical science, and modern language involve five-sixths of all subject combinations, and about two-fifths of the individual's college work is concentrated in a major and a minor.

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<sup>1</sup>National Survey of the Education of Teachers, III, 69-85. Teacher Education Curricula. United States Department of the Interior. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1935.

The teacher should be a specialist not in the narrow sense of having his knowledge confined to a single subject, but a specialist in the broader sense; that is, he should be especially strong in one area of subject matter and should have made careful preparation in one or two other teaching fields. "The traditional major and minor plan of specialization should be replaced by a plan which will secure balance or proportion in several fields of specialization, each organized for the prospective teacher in terms of proficiency."<sup>1</sup>

#### Development of the Curriculum for Professional Education

The establishment of special schools for the education of teachers promoted work of professional character in the teacher-education program. The professional work in normal schools, described in chapter xi, consisted in the main of the theory and practice of teaching, of school discipline and government, and of practice teaching in the model school. More advanced students usually received philosophical consideration of the nature of the mind. Around the turn of the century, the content of the traditional courses in education began to give way to a new type of course based on systematic investigations. Attention is now turned to those developments and to their effects upon that aspect of the teacher-education curriculum commonly termed professional.

In 1926 on the occasion of E. L. Thorndike's twenty-fifth anniversary as professor of education in Teachers College, Columbia University, Charles H. Judd chose as the title of his address "A Century of Applications of Psychology to Education." He gave

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 85.

Herbart credit for making the first pronouncements with respect to the applications of psychology to education. To use Judd's own statements, "Herbart claimed that the mind of man can be described with the same degree of exactness as can the other forces in the real world."<sup>1</sup> Herbart claimed further "that education can never be properly organized until its procedures conform to the laws of the mind." Herbart's desire to base education on psychology was not immediately realized; it remained for his followers to develop an empirical science of the mind.

Fechner, whose interest was in the development of a science of psychology rather than in the applications of psychology to education, attempted to measure mental processes and to relate them to happenings in the outside world. His work had a direct bearing on the measurement movement of a half century later.<sup>2</sup> Wilhelm Wundt, a physiologist as well as psychologist, adopted Fechner's methods of measurement and established a psychological laboratory at Leipzig in 1879, the first in the world.<sup>3</sup> Unlike Fechner, Wundt was a follower of Herbart in that he attempted to interpret mental life as a system of measurable and definable phenomena.<sup>4</sup> He and his followers carried the study of psychology to the point of its being safely applied to practical educational situations.

The Leipzig laboratory provided the training ground for a host of psychologists, many of whom continued their research in America. G. Stanley Hall, under whom the first psychological

<sup>1</sup>C. H. Judd, "A Century of Applications of Psychology to Education," Teachers College Record, XXVIII (May, 1926), 771-81.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 774.

<sup>3</sup>W. B. Pillsbury, The History of Psychology, p. 79. New York: W. W. Norton Company, Inc., 1929.

<sup>4</sup>Judd, op. cit., p. 774.



laboratory in America was established at Johns Hopkins University in 1881,<sup>1</sup> J. McKeen Cattell of Columbia University, Titchner of Cornell University, Munsterberg of Harvard University, and Judd of the University of Chicago, all students of Wundt in Germany, contributed to the development of psychology as a science and to its application to education in America.

At the time when the influence of Wundt was manifesting itself in America the influence of William James was also making itself felt. In 1890 James published his two-volume book on Principles of Psychology and in the following year delivered a series of lectures under the title of "Talks on Psychology of Interest to Teachers."<sup>2</sup> The claim is made that his book contributed as greatly to the field of education as to the field of psychology.

As a subject in the curriculum for the education of teachers, educational psychology, as it is known today, had its beginning in the early years of the present century. Writing of his invitation to Thorndike to join the staff of Teachers College in the school year of 1898-99, James E. Russell made the following statement: "At that time neither the term nor the subject of educational psychology had been created; but I had the notion that a field of study so obviously fundamental to educational theory and practice should have both a name and a sponsor in the kind of teachers college I was planning."<sup>3</sup> The records show that Thorndike joined the staff in 1901 and that in 1902 he was given the title

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<sup>1</sup>Pillsbury, op. cit., p. 246.

<sup>2</sup>Daniel B. Leary, "Development of Educational Psychology," Twenty-five Years of American Education, p. 104. Edited by I. L. Kandel. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924.

<sup>3</sup>James E. Russell, "Thorndike and Teachers College," Teachers College Record, XXVII (February, 1926), 460.

adjunct professor of educational psychology.<sup>1</sup>

The early development that took place in the field of educational psychology is illustrated by the books Thorndike published. C. W. Stone asserts that The Human Nature Club (1901) clearly forecasts the author's comprehensive educational psychology.<sup>2</sup> Frederick G. Bonser states that Educational Psychology (1903) was the first coherent attempt to assemble the known facts and working methods of "a dynamic psychology."<sup>3</sup> Thorndike's most comprehensive publication in the field of educational psychology consisted of three volumes. The first and the second volumes appeared in 1913 and the third appeared in 1914.<sup>4</sup> The content of the three volumes is indicated by the following subtitles: The Original Nature of Man, The Learning Process, and Mental Work and Fatigue and Individual Differences and Their Causes. By the time the comprehensive work appeared, the subject of educational psychology had earned a permanent place in the program for the professional education of teachers.

In 1903 there came from the press a book to mark the beginning of a series of publications in the field of psychology of the school subjects--Charles H. Judd's Genetic Psychology for Teachers.<sup>5</sup> Four of the ten chapters dealt with the psychology of the school subjects of writing, reading, and number; two dealt with the teacher's writing habit and racial and individual devel-

<sup>1</sup>"vita," ibid., p. 469.

<sup>2</sup>"Annotated Chronological Bibliography of Publications by E. L. Thorndike," ibid., p. 470.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 472-73.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., pp. 486-87 and 489.

<sup>5</sup>Charles Hubbard Judd, Genetic Psychology for Teachers. New York: D. Appleton and Company, 1907.

opment in writing, respectively; and the other two dealt with the process of reading and with the idea of number, respectively.

E. B. Huey's Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading (1908) illustrates the trend that the cultivation of the psychology of the school subjects would logically take; namely, the development of an applied psychology in terms of each of the common school subjects.<sup>1</sup> The development is illustrated by the fact that the book deals with the psychology and pedagogy of reading. The author states that his interest in the psychology of reading was aroused nearly ten years before the publication of his book from the question whether reading without inner-pronunciation was possible. In the following statements Huey summarized the development that had taken place in the psychology of reading:

Ten years has given a development here of which experimental psychology may be proud. Dodge, Zeitler, Messmer, Dearborn, and others have thoroughly investigated important phases of reading, and the collected studies now present a very tolerable account of the main processes involved. It has therefore seemed to me that a conspectus should be made of this work, not to close the story but to furnish a new point of departure for further study, and to give perspective for new researches.<sup>2</sup>

The new researches that Huey anticipated are best illustrated by those projected and carried out in the School of Education of the University of Chicago under the direction of Judd and his colleagues. Psychological processes involved in learning in the school subjects were subjected to rigid analyses under experimental conditions. Monographs ensued, presenting the techniques and the results. The character of the experimentation is illustrated by a list of some of the topics: the psychology of reading, types of reading ability, the nature and development of reading,

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<sup>1</sup>E. B. Huey, The Psychology and Pedagogy of Reading. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1908.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. vii, viii.

the eye-voice span in reading, the development of fundamental reading habits, the diagnosis and treatment of remedial cases in reading. In like manner, the learning processes involved in arithmetic were investigated: the reading of isolated numerals, the reading of numerals in arithmetic problems, summary of educational investigations relating to arithmetic, diagnostic studies in arithmetic, psychological analysis of the fundamentals of arithmetic, the development of children's number ideas in the primary grades, and the vocabulary of arithmetic.

The investigations carried on at the University of Chicago, together with those in other universities, soon produced a sizable body of data upon which to draw for a description of the learning processes involved in the common-school subjects. Psychology for each of the common-school subjects became an important aspect of the professional content in the curriculum for the education of teachers.

A half century of research in the field of child growth and development has produced a body of information that merits consideration in any program designed for the professional education of teachers. Prior to the inquiries into the nature of the child and the character of his development, adults were so much occupied with what the child should become that they gave but little attention to what he really was.

Investigations of childhood in America were first conducted by G. Stanley Hall and Earl Barnes and their associates.<sup>1</sup> Of the two, Hall made the greater contribution, his studies extending over a period of more than twenty years. Even though the method he used was dubious, he made major contributions by creating widespread interest in the study of children, by accumulating facts

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<sup>1</sup>Frank N. Freeman, "Introduction: the Purpose and Scope of the Yearbook," The Scientific Movement in Education, p. 1. Thirty-seventh Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education.

about their physical and their mental growth, and by formulating important principles of child development. He recognized periodicity of development as a principle of growth and called attention to the significance of adolescence in the development of children. One of Hall's biographers has the following to say with respect to his influence:

His Child Study was the forerunner of the experimental pedagogy of today. Whatever critics may say of the results which he obtained by the questionnaire method, he opened a host of new problems which had never been thought of before, and upon which other men of less ability have been at work ever since.<sup>1</sup>

The development of interest in child study is further illustrated in the history of the Child Study Association of America. The organization had its beginning in 1888 in a series of meetings of mothers who were studying the history and the progress of education as it applied to their own problems of child training. Their experience proved sufficiently valuable to induce other mothers to join the group the following year. By 1890 the group had increased to thirty mothers, and the name "Society for the Study of Child Nature" was adopted. Other groups were organized. The number had increased sufficiently by 1908 to require a central organization to serve as a headquarters for reports and a medium for gathering and evaluating materials. The new organization was called the "Federation of Child Study." It formulated its aims thus: ". . . to secure, tabulate and distribute information concerning methods of child study and their practical application, to undertake original research, to furnish means of co-operation between societies having similar aims, and to conduct conferences and lectures." In 1924 the organization was incorporated under

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<sup>1</sup>Louis N. Wilson, G. Stanley Hall--A Sketch, p. 116. New York: G. E. Stechert and Company, 1914.



the name, "Child Study Association of America."<sup>1</sup> It has continued to promote interest in the study of children.

As a result of the child-study movement in America, interest has developed in scientific research in the growth and the development of children. A description of a few of the typical research agencies will indicate the character and the extent of the work. In 1911 a psycho-clinic was established at Yale University. Under the directorship of Arnold Gessell the Yale Psycho-Clinic has produced a number of research studies on the growth of preschool children.<sup>2</sup> These studies are significant both for the results obtained and for the ingenious methods by which data were collected. In 1917, the Iowa state legislature made provision for the establishment and the maintenance of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station. The purpose of the station is given in the following section of the act:

That the State Board of Education is hereby authorized to establish and maintain at Iowa City as an integral part of the State University the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station having as its objects the investigation of the best scientific methods of conserving and developing the normal child, the dissemination of the information acquired by such investigation, and the training of students for work in such field.<sup>3</sup>

The fields of investigation of the Iowa Child Welfare Research Station consist of nutrition, physical growth and anthropometry, child psychology, preschool education, and parent education. The information acquired by investigation has been disseminated by station publications numbering eight hundred ninety-six

<sup>1</sup>"History of the Movement in Preschool and Parental Education," Preschool and Parent Education, pp. 215-22. Twenty-eighth Yearbook, National Society for the Study of Education, 1929.

<sup>2</sup>Arnold Gessell, Mental Growth of the Preschool Child, p. 39. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1925.

<sup>3</sup>Pioneering in Child Welfare: A History of the Iowa Child Welfare Station, 1917-33, p. 25. Iowa City: State University of Iowa, 1933.

as of December 15, 1938. As of the same date, there had been awarded in the station sixty-one Doctor of Philosophy degrees and one hundred two Master's degrees.<sup>1</sup> Those facts show the extent to which the station has met the three functions outlined for it.

In the fall of 1931 a Committee on Child Development was organized in the Department of Education of the University of Chicago.<sup>2</sup> The committee included representatives of various departments of the university--anthropology, education, home economics, pediatrics, sociology, and zoölogy. The dean of students and the university examiner were also members of the committee. It was the function of the committee to co-ordinate the activities within the university and to secure the co-operation of agencies outside the university for the purpose of research in the field of child development. Representatives of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, the Institute for Juvenile Research, and the Mooseheart Laboratory for Child Research became members of the committee. For many years before the Committee on Child Development was organized, the Department of Education had maintained a records office in which were concentrated the records of all the children in the laboratory schools. From the records ensued a number of research studies in the physical and the mental development of children. For nearly a quarter of a century, therefore, fundamental research in child development has been carried on at the University of Chicago. In recent years the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education has established at the University of Chicago its center for assembling materials of research

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<sup>1</sup>G. D. Stoddard, The Second Decade: A Review of the Activities of the Iowa Child Welfare Station, 1928-1938, pp. 3-14. University of Iowa Studies New Series No. 366.

<sup>2</sup>Frank N. Freeman, "The Work in Child Development," Zeta News, XVIII (December, 1931), 3-7.

in the field of human growth and development.<sup>1</sup>

Ever since the establishment of schools in America, continuous effort has been made to evaluate their efficiency through some form of measurement. Until the middle of the nineteenth century, the evaluation was made largely through oral examinations conducted by school visitors appointed especially for that purpose. In 1845 the subcommittee of visitors appointed to inspect the grammar department of the Boston public schools decided to lessen its task of examining 7,000 children by introducing written examinations to supplement the oral examinations.<sup>2</sup> Written examinations grew in popularity and soon became the chief means for determining the attainment of school children and of college students. Before the close of the century, however, enthusiasm for written examinations had begun to wane. As early as 1886 teachers' estimates were substituted for written examinations for the promotion of pupils in the public schools of Cincinnati.<sup>3</sup> The question arose, therefore, as to whether or not written examinations constituted a more reliable method for marking papers and for promoting pupils than did teachers' estimates. Suspicion arose with respect to the validity of examinations in the selection of college students. The most damaging evidence against written examinations came at a somewhat later date through investigations on the reliability of teachers' marks. The investigations of Daniel Starch and E. C. Elliott on the reliability of grading high-school work in English, mathematics, and history showed a wide range of variation in the

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<sup>1</sup>The Commission on Teacher Education: A Brief Statement of Its Origin and Scope, pp. 8-9. Washington: American Council on Education, December, 1940.

<sup>2</sup>I. L. Kandel, Examinations and Their Substitutes in the United States, p. 25. New York: The Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1936.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 30.

marks given identical papers. The results showed that the variations resulted from differences in the methods and standards of grading and not from differences in the quality of the papers.<sup>1</sup> The investigations of Starch and Elliott corroborated other investigations that had been made earlier.

Before written examinations were subjected to the scrutiny of scientific investigation, new types of measuring instruments had been developed. Educators saw in the progress of the physical sciences the value of exact instruments of measurements. They were induced, therefore, to imitate the techniques of the older sciences. Before the close of the nineteenth century, J. McKeen Cattell in America and Sir Francis Galton in England had begun to experiment with the application of statistical methods to the measurements of human traits. In 1904 Thorndike published his Introduction to the Theory of Mental and Social Measurements. Since 1895 Binet of France had been experimenting with psychological tests somewhat different from those of sensation and movement which characterized the work of other psychologists. In 1905 he published his scale of intelligence and a revised edition in 1908. In that year Binet's intelligence scale was introduced into America by H. H. Goddard, director of the psychological laboratory in the school for feeble-minded children at Vineland, New Jersey.<sup>2</sup> Later, in 1911, Goddard revised the Binet scale. Other noted revisions came later--one in 1916 by L. M. Terman and another in 1922 by F. Kuhlman.<sup>3</sup>

The World War gave great impetus to the measurement of in-

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 61.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 73-74.

<sup>3</sup>F. N. Freeman, Mental Tests: Their History, Principles, and Applications, pp. 88-89. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1926.

telligence. In response to the need for assigning a large number of men, recently recruited into service, to responsibilities in accordance with their native endowments, several noted psychologists working together developed a group intelligence test, now familiarly known as the Alpha Army Intelligence Examination. The examination, which excited much publicity, was administered to nearly two million men.<sup>1</sup> Immediately following the War, the group intelligence test caught the imagination of school administrators as a means of classifying school children into homogeneous groups. The group tests that became available soon after the close of the War found an enormous sale for testing the intelligence of school children and of college students. Financial returns from the sale of the tests provided funds for further research that led to the refinement of techniques for their improvement. The improved instruments for the measurement of intelligence have come into common use throughout the United States.

Even before instruments for the measurement of intelligence appeared, J. M. Rice in 1894 began work on the preparation of standardized tests in the school subjects of spelling, arithmetic, and language. The results of his effort did not carry conviction in the educational world, perhaps, because he lacked the scientific procedures necessary for the development of exact standards of measurement. Fortified with more scientific techniques than Rice had possessed, Thorndike and his students began work on test and scale construction. C. W. Stone published his arithmetic tests in 1908, and Thorndike, his handwriting scale in 1910.<sup>2</sup> Those measuring devices apparently carried immediate con-

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<sup>1</sup>Clarence S. Yoakum and Robert M. Yerkes, Army Mental Tests, p. 12. New York: Henry Holt and Company, 1920.

<sup>2</sup>Kandel, op. cit., p. 75.



viction and marked the onset of the rapid development of standardized achievement tests and scales. By 1938, according to Tyler, millions of tests had been sold, millions of children had been tested, and more than one hundred books describing achievement tests and their uses had been written.<sup>1</sup>

It has been the purpose of this brief survey of the measurement movement to show that measurement has come to be an essential aspect of the program for the education of teachers. A study of the catalogues for two hundred thirty-three institutions of higher learning shows that most state universities, half of the normal schools and teachers colleges, and nearly half of the non-state universities offered courses in educational measurements in the summer of 1920.<sup>2</sup> In the meantime, measurement has expanded and has become more firmly entrenched in the program of education including the program of scientific investigation and of educational practices. No program for the education of teachers can afford to neglect a consideration of measuring instruments and their uses in education.

#### Summary

The curriculum of the liberal arts college--at first limited in scope and mainly prescribed--materially affected the academic curriculum of teacher education. As knowledge increased and the college program expanded, courses in the curriculum became elective. Free election, however, resulted in neither correct concentration nor proper distribution of knowledge. To correct the fault, prescription was again resorted to, but on a different

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<sup>1</sup>Relph W. Tyler, "The Scientific Techniques of Investigation," The Scientific Movement in Education, p. 341. Thirty-seventh Yearbook, Part II, National Society for the Study of Education, 1938.

<sup>2</sup>I. N. Kandel, Twenty-five Years of American Education, p. 136. New York: The Macmillan Company, 1924.

basis from that of the earlier practice. Necessity for extending the educational background of college students beyond that provided by high-school education has recently become apparent. Owing to the need for adequate education for intelligent citizenship and for sound specialization, many colleges have organized in the freshman and the sophomore years a program of general education. That program is made up of constants in the several significant fields of learning. The program of general education, adopted in principle by many educational leaders and in practice by many progressive colleges, now constitutes an essential element in most programs for the professional education of teachers.

Specialized education is the converse of general education. Specialization implies the cultivation of particular interests in specific activities. The program implies specific preparation in the fields in which prospective teachers intend to work, either in terms of subject-matter fields or in terms of the grade levels of the school system. Formerly specialization was intensive rather than extensive. The result too often was overspecialization with its accompanying effect manifesting itself in the instructional work of the teacher. Apparently the trend now is toward broad fields of concentration in both subject-matter and grade preparation. Broad majors and minors seem to be gaining favor over specialization in single subjects and in individual grades.

Upon the establishment of special schools for the education of teachers, professional work came into the curriculum. The content of the professional work offered in the normal school consisted mainly of the theory and art of teaching based on the current concept of the nature of the mind. There was also some practice teaching in the model school. The scientific movement in education in the latter part of the nineteenth century and the first

part of the twentieth brought about significant changes in the professional work. Courses in educational psychology, in the psychology of the common-school subjects, in child growth and development, and in tests and measurements were introduced into the professional aspect of the curriculum for teacher education. Courses in methods and principles of teaching became more valid as a result of verifiable evidence with respect to learning and teaching. The new content supplanted the old content of the professional courses of the normal school.

## CHAPTER XV

### PROGRAM FOR THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF TEACHERS IN STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES

In the preceding chapter, curriculum development for the professional education of teachers was considered with respect to the curriculum for general education, for special education, and for professional education. Upon that background the present chapter is built. This chapter treats of present-day practices in teachers colleges with respect to (1) the program of general education, (2) the program of special education, and (3) the program of professional education. Each of the three topics is given detailed consideration on the basis of data derived from the analyses of the offerings of seven representative state teachers colleges in the Middle States.<sup>1</sup>

#### The Program of General Education

The program of general education in teachers colleges as in other teacher-educating institutions resulted from experimentation with prescription and election in the program of the liberal arts colleges. A quantitative picture of the program of general education in teachers colleges is given in Table 17. Inspection of the table shows that students are required to spend from one-fourth to one-third their time in effort to extend their general

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<sup>1</sup>The seven institutions are considered representative inasmuch as Iowa has only one state teachers college and Indiana has only two; and inasmuch as Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota each maintains a system of teacher-educating institutions. Ohio provides for the education of teachers mainly through professional departments in colleges and universities of the state.

TABLE 17

PROGRAM OF GENERAL EDUCATION IN QUARTER-HOUR CREDITS  
IN SEVEN REPRESENTATIVE STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES<sup>a</sup>

| College   | Soc.<br>Stud. | Sci. and<br>Math. | Fine and<br>Ap. Arts | Lang.<br>Lit. | Health<br>Phy. Ed. | Gen.<br>Psy. | Totals | QH<br>Req. | Per<br>Cent |
|-----------|---------------|-------------------|----------------------|---------------|--------------------|--------------|--------|------------|-------------|
| A.....    | 19.0          | 13.5              | 3                    | 12.0          | 9                  | 4.5          | 60.0   | 192        | 31.8        |
| B.....    | 8.0           | 12.0              | 4                    | 12.0          | 12                 | ....         | 48.0   | 192        | 25.4        |
| C.....    | 6.0           | 10.0              | ....                 | 13.0          | 2                  | ....         | 31.0   | 180        | 16.4        |
| D.....    | 18.0          | 18.0              | ....                 | 30.0          | 15                 | 4.5          | 85.5   | 180        | 45.3        |
| E.....    | 12.0          | 12.0              | 9                    | 12.0          | 8                  | ....         | 53.0   | 192        | 28.1        |
| F.....    | 17.2          | 11.2              | ....                 | 22.5          | ....               | ....         | 50.9   | 186        | 26.1        |
| G.....    | 27.0          | 15.0              | ....                 | 3.0           | 6                  | 4.5          | 55.5   | 198        | 29.3        |
| Totals    | 106.2         | 91.7              | 16                   | 104.5         | 52                 | 13.5         | 383.9  | 1320       | ....        |
| Averages  | 15.17         | 13.1              | 2.28                 | 14.92         | 7.42               | 1.92         | 54.84  | 188.6      | 29.0        |
| Per Cents | 8.0           | 6.9               | 1.2                  | 7.9           | 3.9                | 1.1          | 29.0   | ....       | ....        |

<sup>a</sup>Data were obtained from the catalogs of the following colleges:

- A. Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois, 1940-41.
- B. Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana, 1940-41.
- C. Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa, 1939-40.
- D. Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan, 1939-40.
- E. Mankato State Teachers College, Mankato, Minnesota, 1940-41.
- F. Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri, 1940-42.
- G. Whitewater State Teachers College, Whitewater, Wisconsin, 1940-41 and 1941-42.



background of knowledge. Twenty-nine per cent of the requirements for graduation is devoted to general education. As to the desirability of that effort there is general agreement among the colleges; there is not, however, general agreement as to the amount of effort that should be expended on general education. For example, Iowa State Teachers College<sup>1</sup> requires only thirty-six quarter hours in contrast with Western State Teachers College<sup>2</sup> which requires eighty-five quarter hours. Each of the other colleges varies within six hours of the average.

In the main the work in general education is offered during the first two years. In the Illinois State Normal University no specific line of demarcation is drawn between the work of the first two years and of the last two; but analysis of the four-year curriculum for the preparation of high-school teachers shows that the work of the first two years is devoted largely to general education.<sup>3</sup> Only at the beginning of the junior year does the student begin specialization in fields of his major interest. Ball State Teachers College devotes the first two years to general education, "for an understanding of physical and social environment and the possibilities for usefulness in it is basic to an understanding of effective professional procedures."<sup>4</sup> Western State Teachers College during the first two years aims "to provide the student with essential factual information; to give him an introduction of methods of thought and work and to provide such oppor-

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<sup>1</sup>Iowa State Teachers College Catalog, 1939-40, XLI, No. 1, 58.

<sup>2</sup>Western State Teachers College Catalog, 1939-40, XXXV, No. 4, 88.

<sup>3</sup>Illinois State Normal University Catalog, 1940-41, XXXVIII, No. 162, 82.

<sup>4</sup>Ball State Teachers College Catalog, 1940-41, XV, No. 3, 61.

tunities for study and growth as may lead to a well-rounded general education."<sup>1</sup> In the Mankato State Teachers College the first two years are purely academic with the work designed to develop general, cultural background.<sup>2</sup> In the Northeast Missouri State Teachers College the student completes two years in the General College before he is admitted to the College of Professional Education.<sup>3</sup> In both the Iowa State Teachers College<sup>4</sup> and the Whitewater State Teachers College<sup>5</sup> the general work comes mainly in the freshman year.

Table 17 shows that each of the colleges gives considerable attention to the social studies. On the basis of the average of 188.6 quarter hours required for graduation, 8 per cent is in the social studies. As indicated by variation in the requirement among the colleges, social studies are of more significance in certain institutions than in others. Not only is there variation as to amount of emphasis placed on the social studies, there is variation also with respect to the phases of the subject that receive emphasis. Catalogue statements show that Normal places equal emphasis on contemporary civilization and the history of civilization and culture.<sup>6</sup> Muncie allows some option within the

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<sup>1</sup>Western State Teachers College Catalog, 1939-40, XXXV, No. 4, 65.

<sup>2</sup>Mankato State Teachers College, Annual Catalog, 1940-41, p. 1.

<sup>3</sup>Bulletin, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-41, XL, No. 2, 40.

<sup>4</sup>Iowa State Teachers College Catalog, 1939-40, XLI, No. 1, 57.

<sup>5</sup>Whitewater State Teachers College, General Catalog Number, 1940-41 and 1941-42, p. 48.

<sup>6</sup>The seven teachers colleges will henceforth be referred to by the name of the towns in which they are located. Catalogue statements on this page are from references cited for Table 18.

social studies on the basis of the field of the student's specialization. Cedar Falls limits work in the social studies to one hour of contemporary affairs and five hours of American government. Kirksville deals with the background of the modern world and of current affairs. Mankato places equal emphasis on the economic, the political, and the social phases of the social studies. Whitewater requires six hours of work in English history, six in economics, three in political science, and three in sociology.<sup>1</sup>

In the seven teachers colleges 6.9 per cent of their total requirement is in science and mathematics. The requirement in quarter hours ranges from ten for Cedar Falls to eighteen for Kalamazoo. Normal has organized three component courses with equal emphasis on the biological, the physical, and the earth sciences.<sup>2</sup> No work is required in mathematics. Muncie requires a year of work in either science or mathematics.<sup>3</sup> In science the work is offered in a sequence of three courses consisting of an elementary course in general biology, a survey course in physics, and a survey of the basic concepts in the study of plant and animal life in their relation to man. On approval, a sequence may be selected from a single science, or from a combination of various sciences, or from science and mathematics. Cedar Falls requires a survey course in biological science and in physical science.<sup>4</sup> Kalamazoo requires eighteen quarter hours of work in the following: agriculture, astronomy, anatomy, biology, botany, chem-

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<sup>1</sup>Bulletin, Whitewater State Teachers College, Catalog, 1941-42, p. 48.

<sup>2</sup>Illinois State Normal University, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 82.

<sup>3</sup>Ball State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 73.

<sup>4</sup>Iowa State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 58.

istry, geography, hygiene, mathematics, nature study, physics, physiology, psychology, and zoölogy.<sup>1</sup> Apparently the requisite credit may be obtained by taking work in a combination of those subjects. Mankato requires twelve quarter hours of credit in an integrated course divided into three equal divisions and designated biological science and man, physical science and man, and geographical science and man.<sup>2</sup> Kirksville requires study in three related courses of man and the scientific world.<sup>3</sup> The content of the courses deals with physics and astronomy, with the earth in terms of its laws and forces, and with the fundamental facts and principles of biology. Whitewater requires two courses both of which may be taken in either physics or chemistry.<sup>4</sup>

The division of language and literature holds almost as prominent place in the program of general education as does the division of the social studies. Of the total requirement for graduation, 7.9 per cent is in the field of language and literature. Both Cedar Falls<sup>5</sup> and Whitewater<sup>6</sup> restrict their requirements to language. The work is obviously designed to facilitate both oral and written expression. Normal requires a four and a half quarter-hour course in English language and composition.<sup>7</sup> Students whose entrance examinations in English show superior training are exempted from the course. The exemption does not

<sup>1</sup>Western State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 66.

<sup>2</sup>Mankato State Teachers College, Annual Catalog, 1940-41,  
p. 71.

<sup>3</sup>Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, p. 37.

<sup>4</sup>Whitewater State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, p.49.

<sup>5</sup>Iowa State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 58.

<sup>6</sup>Whitewater State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, p.49.

<sup>7</sup>Illinois State Normal University, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 109.

reduce the amount of work required in the division. Exempted students must take two other courses of four and a half quarter-hour credits each. The first of these courses is required of all students. The content consists of composition based on reading of contemporary essays, biographies, fiction, and drama. The second course is an introduction to literature and is required of all freshmen exempted of English language and composition. In addition, students are required to take a three quarter-hour course in the fundamentals of speech. Muncie requires eight quarter hours of work in written and oral expression and four in an introduction to literature of various forms.<sup>1</sup> Kalamazoo requires twelve quarter hours of work in rhetoric designed to give students facility in thinking, talking, reading, and writing.<sup>2</sup> Eighteen quarter hours are required also in language and literature. The work in language is presumably a foreign language. Mankato requires twelve quarter hours in language and literature.<sup>3</sup> Six of these are designated freshman English and six, world literature. The former is work in written and oral speech and the latter, in a study of selected readings from the literature of the past. Kirksville divides its requirement in language and literature into two equal parts--freshman English and world literature.<sup>4</sup> Each of the seven colleges requires students to give some attention to the improvement of their ability in expression, usually both oral and written. The character of the work in literature is of the survey type either through courses in world literature or through courses

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<sup>1</sup>Ball State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 64.

<sup>2</sup>Western State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 88.

<sup>3</sup>Mankato State Teachers College, Annual Catalog, 1940-41, p. 63.

<sup>4</sup>Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, p. 33.



in type literature.

Only three of the seven teachers colleges include the fine and applied arts in their programs of general education. These three limit the requirements to three, four, and nine quarter hours, respectively. Normal<sup>1</sup> and Muncie<sup>2</sup> both require work in music and art appreciation. Mankato requires an equal amount of work in music appreciation, art appreciation, and orientation and appreciation in industrial education.<sup>3</sup>

The seven teachers colleges include health and physical education in their programs of general education. There is some difference in practice, however, with respect to the matter of credit. Muncie requires twelve quarter hours of credit in physical education in addition to 192 quarter hours required for graduation.<sup>4</sup> Kalamazoo requires fifteen quarter hours in addition to the 180 quarter hours required for graduation.<sup>5</sup> Kirksville requires a year of work in physical education for which no credit is given.<sup>6</sup> In the other four teachers colleges physical education is treated in the same manner as are other courses. Normal requires six hours of recreational activity in the freshman and the sophomore years.<sup>7</sup> In addition three hours of work are required in hygiene. That course deals with principles and practices of health promotion. Cedar Falls requires three quarter hours in

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<sup>1</sup>Illinois State Normal University, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 82.

<sup>2</sup>Ball State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 64.

<sup>3</sup>Mankato State Teachers College, Annual Catalog, 1940-41,  
p. 37.

<sup>4</sup>Ball State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 64.

<sup>5</sup>Western State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 88.

<sup>6</sup>Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-  
42, p. 29.

<sup>7</sup>Illinois State Normal University, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 82.

physical education; the work extends throughout the year and consists of games and sports.<sup>1</sup> Mankato requires eight quarter hours in health and physical education, four in personal and community hygiene and four in activities.<sup>2</sup> Whitewater requires six quarter hours in physical education which consists of sports and recreational activities.<sup>3</sup>

### The Program of Special Education

It was shown in the preceding chapter that general education in state teachers colleges of the Middle States was largely the result of pioneering by the liberal arts college in the field of general education. Attention is now turned to special education, that work which students may pursue in fields of their special interests and abilities. Such education is built upon the program of general education in the state teachers colleges. Two-year programs for the preparation of teachers are excluded as they necessarily must assume an irregular pattern. The subject-matter areas for specialization or concentration as revealed by catalogue analyses are shown in Table 18.

Inspection of the table shows that art, biological science, English, geography, mathematics, physics, chemistry, and the social studies are areas of concentration common to the seven institutions. Health and physical education is an area of specialization for all the colleges except Whitewater. Cedar Falls and Muncie have the greatest number of areas of concentration. Normal is a close second, and Kalamazoo and Kirksville are a close third.

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<sup>1</sup>Iowa State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 53.

<sup>2</sup>Mankato State Teachers College, Annual Catalog, 1940-41,  
p. 49.

<sup>3</sup>Whitewater State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, pp.  
49 and 74.

TABLE 18

SUBJECT-MATTER AREAS OF SPECIALIZATION IN SEVEN  
REPRESENTATIVE STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES<sup>a</sup>

| Subject-Matter Areas               | Normal | Muncie | Cedar Falls | Kalamazoo | Mankato | Kirksville | Whitewater |
|------------------------------------|--------|--------|-------------|-----------|---------|------------|------------|
| Agriculture.....                   | x      | x      | x           | ...       | ...     | x          | ...        |
| Art.....                           | x      | x      | x           | x         | x       | x          | ...        |
| Biological Science.                | x      | x      | x           | x         | x       | x          | x          |
| Commerce.....                      | x      | x      | x           | x         | ...     | x          | x          |
| English.....                       | x      | x      | x           | x         | x       | x          | x          |
| French.....                        | x      | x      | x           | x         | ...     | x          | ...        |
| German.....                        | x      | x      | x           | x         | ...     | x          | ...        |
| Latin.....                         | x      | x      | x           | x         | ...     | ...        | ...        |
| Library Science....                | ...    | x      | ...         | ...       | ...     | ...        | ...        |
| Spanish.....                       | ...    | x      | x           | x         | ...     | ...        | ...        |
| Geography.....                     | x      | x      | x           | x         | x       | x          | x          |
| Health and Physical Education..... | x      | x      | x           | x         | x       | x          | ...        |
| Home Economics....                 | x      | x      | x           | x         | ...     | x          | ...        |
| Industrial Arts....                | x      | x      | x           | x         | x       | x          | ...        |
| Mathematics.....                   | x      | x      | x           | x         | x       | x          | x          |
| Music.....                         | x      | x      | x           | ...       | x       | x          | ...        |
| General Science....                | ...    | ...    | ...         | ...       | x       | x          | ...        |
| Physics.....                       | x      | x      | x           | x         | x       | x          | x          |
| Chemistry.....                     | x      | x      | x           | x         | x       | x          | x          |
| Social Studies....                 | x      | x      | x           | x         | x       | x          | x          |
| Speech.....                        | x      | ...    | x           | x         | ...     | x          | ...        |

<sup>a</sup>Data were obtained from the catalogs of the following colleges:

Illinois State Normal University, Normal, 1940-41.  
 Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana, 1940-41.  
 Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, 1939-40.  
 Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan, 1939-40.  
 Mankato State Teachers College, Mankato, Minnesota, 1940-41.  
 Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, 1940-42.  
 Whitewater State Teachers College, Whitewater, Wisconsin, 1940-42.

Mankato and Whitewater have the fewest areas of specialization. The fact that Whitewater specializes in the education of commercial teachers accounts probably for the smaller number of areas of concentration in that institution.<sup>1</sup> Only at Muncie is library science offered as an area of specialization. Speech, Spanish,

<sup>1</sup>Bulletin, Whitewater State Teachers College, Catalog, 1941-42, p. 21.

and general science are areas of concentration in four, three, and two of the institutions, respectively.

The four-year curriculums for the preparation of high-school teachers are organized to include majors and minors and to lead to the Bachelor's degree. The major and minor system provides for concentration in different fields of subject matter. The system is usually elective in so far as majors and minors are concerned, but within the majors and minors themselves requirements prevail, generally in accordance with a prescribed sequence. During the first two years comprehensive study is made of areas of related knowledge so that the student may have a broad educational background. The trend in the teachers colleges is toward comprehensive courses in the significant fields of human thought and action. Material for the courses is selected in accordance with the present-day needs of society. Many fields of knowledge are included in order to provide the student with a comprehensive view of life and of contemporary civilization. Understanding of social, political, and economic problems is considered of fundamental significance. Majors and minors are specifically required in five of the seven teachers colleges. Work in addition to the required major or majors is pursued simply as electives. Normal does not require minors. Specialization in that institution is designated as a first teaching field, a second teaching field, and a third teaching field. In reality, the system at Normal, and at Muncie as well, is a system of majors and minors called by another name.

There is quantitative variation in majors among the several institutions as is shown by catalogue statements. In Normal<sup>1</sup> the requirement ranges from 48 quarter hours to 60 quarter hours,

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<sup>1</sup>Illinois State Normal University Bulletin, 1940-41, p. 74.

with a mean of 51 quarter hours. Muncie has a range from 24 quarter hours in library science to 80 quarter hours in certain science options. The mean for Muncie is 47.8 quarter hours. Cedar Falls ranges from 38 quarter hours to a maximum of 49.5 with a mean of 34; Mankato, from 47 quarter hours to 68 quarter hours with a mean of 59; Kirksville, from 22.5 quarter hours to 40 quarter hours with a mean of 29; and Whitewater, from 42 quarter hours to 67.5 quarter hours with a mean of 54.8.

Minors show variations also, but not to the same extent. The range for the seven schools is from a minimum of 15 quarter hours to a maximum of 24 quarter hours, with an approximate mean of 15 to 16 quarter hours.

In the program of special education concentration is designed to meet the needs of students preparing to teach in some unit of the public-school system. Usually programs are sufficiently flexible to permit differentiation. At Normal the student may prepare for work on either the elementary, the intermediate, the upper grade, the junior high school, or the senior high school level; or, if he prefers, he may pursue a combination of subjects within a given unit. Muncie requires the student before he plans his program of specialization to decide tentatively what field of service he expects to enter, in some instances the choice of courses depending directly upon the amount of credit the student has earned in the same area in high school.<sup>1</sup> There is great flexibility in the program at Cedar Falls, owing probably to the fact that the Iowa State Teachers College is the only state teachers college in Iowa and is obligated to prepare teachers for every type of school position.<sup>2</sup> Kalamazoo offers a wide range of spe-

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<sup>1</sup>Ball State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 48.

<sup>2</sup>Iowa State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 56.



cialization.<sup>1</sup> Students are afforded the opportunity of preparing for both general and special work; they are able also to exercise individual choice even in their electives. Perhaps Kalamazoo has the most flexible program of the seven representative colleges. In addition to the curriculums for the preparation of teachers there are pre-professional programs in the fields of business administration, dentistry, engineering, forestry, journalism, law, medicine, nursing, and social work.<sup>2</sup> The school seemingly does not limit its service to the preparation of teachers.

As has been shown in the immediately preceding section of this study, the work of the first two years of the four-year curriculums in the seven teachers colleges is designed to extend the general background of students for later specialization through the completion of majors and minors. Normal begins specialization with the junior year.<sup>3</sup> Each student must complete specified requirements, including preparation in the subject matter of a first teaching field, a second teaching field, and, when possible, a third teaching field. The choice of a first teaching field determines the curriculum on which the student is registered. During the freshman year the student, although he devotes most of his time to the subjects prescribed in the general curriculum for

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<sup>1</sup>Western State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, pp. 94-101.

<sup>2</sup>Western State Teachers College has arranged combined curriculums with the Law School, the School of Forestry, and the School of Dentistry of the University of Michigan. There are also combined curriculums with the College of Medicine, Wayne University, and the Detroit College of Law. A student who has completed the pre-professional work at Kalamazoo may enter the professional school and after a year of successful work will be awarded either the Bachelor of Arts or the Bachelor of Science degree by Western State Teachers College. Thus the student shortens by one year the time required for degrees from two institutions.

<sup>3</sup>Illinois State Normal University, Catalog, 1940-41, pp. 59 and 75.

all high-school teachers, begins the study of his first teaching field; during his sophomore year he takes a second year of work in the field elected in the freshman year and begins the study of a second teaching field. The required subjects of the general curriculum are counted toward the required amount of work in the first teaching field and the second, so that a student is able to add a third teaching field or give additional time to those already chosen. Most students are advised to elect a third teaching field. Certain course sequence is required in each teaching field, the courses to be approved by the director of the division. A sequence in a given field must prepare the student to teach in that field.

Muncie gives major emphasis during the last two years to techniques of teaching and to further learning in special fields.<sup>1</sup> The student is required to secure academic and professional-academic credit in at least two majors chosen from specified fields and he is advised to concentrate his electives toward a third major. Each student is expected to acquire sufficient mastery of all phases of his major subjects to teach them successfully in the high schools of Indiana. He may be asked to demonstrate his ability by means of a comprehensive examination. He must include in his curriculum the courses required by the State Board of Education for a teaching certificate.

The four-year curriculums at Cedar Falls are organized to include majors and minors and to lead to the degree of Bachelor of Arts.<sup>2</sup> A student must choose a major and the required number of minors before he registers for the courses of the sophomore year. Three or more minors are recommended so that the student

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<sup>1</sup>Ball State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-41, pp. 61-79.

<sup>2</sup>Iowa State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, pp. 56-58.

may be prepared in several teaching fields. The program must include the prescriptions of the State Board of Educational Examiners.

Kalamazoo requires for admission to the program of the third and the fourth years completion of two years of general education plus additional evidence that the student has general intelligence, scholastic aptitude, and fitness for teaching.<sup>1</sup> The work is designed to enable the student to pursue more extensively and more intensively courses in the field of his special interest and to pursue also a curriculum designed to give him the knowledge and the skills necessary for teaching in a specified field. The academic training includes a major and two minors with courses so selected that the requirements in some one of the provisional certificate curriculums are fulfilled.<sup>2</sup> It is usually not permissible to use education as a major or a minor in any undergraduate curriculum. It is permissible to use a group major, that is a combination of courses from related departments, if such major is approved by the department adviser.

At Mankato students, although they need not select majors and minors until the beginning of the junior year, are urged to begin consideration of them with their counsellors during the freshman and the sophomore years.<sup>3</sup> Specialization actually begins with the junior year. During the senior-college period mastery of the field of concentration is gained, together with the study of professional courses and student teaching in the labora-

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<sup>1</sup>Western State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, pp. 66-68.

<sup>2</sup>Pre-professional programs and the general degree program are excluded.

<sup>3</sup>Mankato State Teachers College, Annual Catalog, 1940-41, pp. 1-13.

tory schools. Two majors or one major and two minors outside the division are required. In special cases majors in individual fields may be arranged with the approval of the division concerned.

Upon the completion of two years of general education at Kirksville all students interested in teaching enter the College of Professional Education to specialize in some subject-matter field, to pursue professional courses, and to obtain student teaching in the laboratory schools.<sup>1</sup> During the first quarter of the junior year the student is required to select his major field of concentration if he has not previously done so. Major and minor sequences are offered in subjects or fields presented by the secondary schools of Missouri and content is selected and taught with the idea of preparing teachers to use the elementary- and secondary-school courses of the state. Opportunity is given for some free election in order to meet the individual needs of students.

Whitewater requires students enrolled on the curriculum for the senior high school to select a major and a minor not later than the beginning of the sophomore year.<sup>2</sup> That school in its attempt to afford opportunity for students to specialize in fields of their inclinations, prepares for eleven distinct lines of teaching. Special emphasis is given to the preparation of teachers of commercial subjects in the high schools and in the vocational schools. Two curriculums are provided: Curriculum X is for high-school graduates who have completed a high-school course in commerce or have had training in commercial subjects in private schools; curriculum Y is for all high-school graduates who have

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<sup>1</sup>Northeast Missouri State Teachers College Catalog, 1940-42, pp. 6 and 24-40.

<sup>2</sup>Whitewater State Teachers College Catalog, 1940-42, pp. 37-50.

had no previous training in shorthand and typewriting. In addition to a major in commercial education each candidate must submit as partial requirement for the degree, fifteen semesters of twenty-two and a half quarter hours credit in each of two minors selected from the following seven subject-matter areas: English, geography, history, languages, mathematics, science, and social studies.

The program of special education has thus far been discussed in terms of the program for high-school teachers only. Attention will now be given to the organization and functioning of the curriculums for the preparation of elementary-school teachers.

Normal recommends that students who desire to teach in grades one to eight inclusive enroll on the elementary-school curriculum.<sup>1</sup> Once enrolled there the student must select subjects that have some relation to the work in the elementary school. Not more than a total of nine quarter hours may be chosen from special unrelated fields, such as home economics, commerce, and foreign languages. In the division of elementary graded school education there are three differentiated programs: the field of kindergarten-primary grades; the field of intermediate grades; and the field of upper grades. In each field enough courses are offered to provide for the preparation of teaching in that field. Specialization begins with the junior year.

Muncie requires each student to make formal application for admission to the Upper Division, that is, junior standing in the college.<sup>2</sup> Students preparing to teach in the elementary field

<sup>1</sup>Illinois State Normal University, Catalog, 1940-41, pp. 72-76.

<sup>2</sup>Ball State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-41, pp. 43 and 61.



then pursue prepared courses, following closely given sequence and course prerequisites. Directed electives are offered for the purpose of developing the interests and the needs of the individual. For the most part the student is encouraged to make his own election, but the college specifies electives when it is found that the student is deficient in any phase of the work. Electives may be chosen from the following fields: fine and applied arts, home economics, and English. The student must maintain proficiency in oral and in written expression. If the results of his placement tests during the freshman year and of the Upper Division qualifying test in English during the sophomore year show him deficient, the student is required to take opportunity English which is a remedial course.

Students at Cedar Falls desiring to major in elementary education and to teach in grades above the primary must choose electives so as to provide for at least 22.5 quarter hours in one of the following subject-matter groups and at least 15 quarter hours in each of two other subject-matter areas: art, English, earth science, history, mathematics, music, biological and physical science, and health and physical education.<sup>1</sup> In the field of biological and physical science the student may choose any courses listed in the department of science, except courses in earth science and in agriculture. In meeting the requirement in health and physical education the student may elect courses in physical education or the following courses from the field of biological science, namely, Health Education and Hygiene and Sanitation.

Kalamazoo requires for a Bachelor's degree and a state elementary provisional certificate that academic training shall include four minors, or a major--group or single--and two minors

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<sup>1</sup>Iowa State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 60.

in subjects or subject fields taught in the elementary grades.<sup>1</sup> In the field of elementary education two curriculums are outlined: the Early Elementary and the Later Elementary. Students enrolled on the former curriculum must take a course in library science and must secure academic education including four minors or a major--single or group--and two minors in subjects or subject fields taught in the elementary grades; that is, the equivalent of two minors must be in subjects taught in the elementary grades. Students enrolled on the Later Elementary Curriculum must meet the same requirements as for the Early Elementary Curriculum, and, in addition, must elect three of the following courses that are in line of major interest: history and teaching of arithmetic, the teaching of geography, the teaching of the social studies, later elementary music, and art structure.

At Mankato the following courses in addition to the constants are required of students preparing to teach in the elementary grades: art structure, art materials and teaching procedures, elementary science, elementary school literature, the language arts in the elementary school, American history and government or the middle period or contemporary American history, teaching of the social studies in the elementary school, geography of either South and Central America, or North America, or Europe, or the Far East. If the student is preparing to teach in the upper grades, he must take the course, geography in education. Other required courses are first aid and safety, industrial arts, the teaching of arithmetic, fundamentals of music, materials and methods of teaching music, and the teaching of physical education in the

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<sup>1</sup>Western State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, pp. 67, 78, and 81.

elementary school.<sup>1</sup> The students choose electives to build up academic strength in one or two fields.

Kirksville requires of students preparing to teach in the elementary schools an elementary-education major of fifty-five quarter hours,<sup>2</sup> built up of ten quarter hours in fine and applied arts, ten in health and physical education, ten in language and literature, two and a half in mathematics, and twenty in the social studies. The student may elect two and a half quarter hours in either nature study or in agriculture for rural teachers. The student majoring in music may elect five additional hours in a field of his choice, omitting first aid and voice science.

The curriculum in elementary education at Whitewater comprises primary education, intermediate education, and rural education.<sup>3</sup> In each, minors and electives may be chosen from any subject-matter field. At least fifteen credits--22.5 quarter hours--in each of three subject-matter areas are urged. Courses pursued during the freshman and the sophomore years are accredited. Electives may be chosen from the following fields: English, geography, history, mathematics, science, and the social studies. Other courses in the academic and special fields may be elected by permission of the director, provided that the student has the proper prerequisites. In elementary education the curriculums are so constructed that those who have completed the work in the shorter curriculums will receive full credit for such work on the four-year curriculums.

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<sup>1</sup>Mankato State Teachers College, Annual Catalog, 1940-41,  
pp. 13 ff.

<sup>2</sup>Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, p. 28.

<sup>3</sup>Whitewater State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, pp. 41-47.

In the seven representative state teachers colleges the four-year curriculums are organized to include majors and minors and to lead to the Bachelor's degree. That is true of the programs for the preparation of elementary-school teachers as well as for the programs designed for the education of high-school teachers. "Only honest, intelligent, well educated and devoted teachers"<sup>1</sup> can meet present-day duties and responsibilities exacted by a new social order.

#### The Program of Professional Education

In this section of the study is presented the program of professional education, the third and final phase of the program for the education of teachers in seven state teachers colleges in the Middle States. Analyses of the most recent catalogues of the institutions chosen reveal both similarities and dissimilarities in educational practice. The findings are presented in Table 19.

In arranging the professional work catagorically it was difficult always to place subjects under the proper headings. The terms "secondary education," "philosophy of education," "principles of education," and similar phrases finally were listed as "principles of education." Such titles as "school organization," "school management," "school supervision," and "school observation" were listed as "principles of methods and management." All courses in psychology, except courses obviously general psychology, were grouped under the heading "educational psychology." The caption "statistical methods and measurement" includes courses treating of construction of tests, the classification of pupils, the measurement of teaching results, the application of remedial measures, the construction of reliable examinations, and statistical methods.

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<sup>1</sup>Western State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 65.

TABLE 19

PROGRAM OF PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION IN QUARTER-HOUR CREDITS  
IN SEVEN REPRESENTATIVE STATE TEACHERS COLLEGES<sup>a</sup>

| College   | Ed.<br>Psy. | Prin.<br>of Ed. | Meth-<br>ods | Stat.<br>and<br>Meas. | Hist.<br>of Ed. | Am. Pub.<br>Ed. | Cur-<br>ric. | Stud.<br>Teac.    | Totals | QH<br>Req. | Per<br>Cent |
|-----------|-------------|-----------------|--------------|-----------------------|-----------------|-----------------|--------------|-------------------|--------|------------|-------------|
| A.....    | 4.5         | 9.0             | 4.5          | .....                 | .....           | 4.5             | ....         | 12.0              | 34.5   | 192        | 17.9        |
| B.....    | 12.0        | 4.0             | 4.0          | .....                 | .....           | ...             | ....         | 8.0               | 28.0   | 192        | 14.6        |
| C.....    | 8.0         | 5.0             | 2.0          | 7.0                   | .....           | ...             | ....         | 8.0               | 30.0   | 180        | 16.7        |
| D.....    | 4.5         | 4.5             | 6.0          | .....                 | 3.0             | ...             | ....         | 12.0              | 30.0   | 180        | 16.7        |
| E.....    | 7.0         | 3.0             | 4.0          | .....                 | .....           | 3.0             | 4.0          | 8.0               | 29.0   | 192        | 15.1        |
| F.....    | 2.5         | 2.5             | 5.0          | 2.5                   | 2.5             | ...             | ....         | 5.0               | 20.0   | 186        | 10.8        |
| G.....    | 4.5         | 4.5             | 4.5          | 4.5                   | 4.5             | ...             | ....         | 15.0 <sup>b</sup> | 37.5   | 198        | 18.9        |
| Totals    | 43.0        | 32.5            | 30.0         | 14.0                  | 10.0            | 7.5             | 4.0          | 68.0              | 209.0  | 1320       | 110.7       |
| Averages  | 5.7         | 4.6             | 4.3          | 2.0                   | 1.4             | 1.1             | 0.7          | 9.7               | 29.9   | 188.6      | 15.8        |
| Per Cents | 3.2         | 2.4             | 2.3          | 1.0                   | 0.7             | 0.6             | 0.4          | 5.2               | 15.8   | .....      | .....       |

<sup>a</sup>Data were obtained from the catalogs of the following colleges:

- A. State Normal University, Normal, Illinois, 1940-41.
- B. Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana, 1940-41.
- C. Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa, 1939-40.
- D. Western State Teachers College, Kalamazoo, Michigan, 1939-40.
- E. Mankato State Teachers College, Mankato, Minnesota, 1940-41.
- F. Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, Missouri, 1940-42.
- G. Whitewater State Teachers College, Whitewater, Wisconsin, 1940-42.

<sup>b</sup>The Board of Regents of Normal Schools has set as a standard from five to ten semester hours of directed teaching; that is, 7.5 to 15 quarter hours of directed teaching.



In some instances courses listed under the heading "statistical methods and measurement" might appropriately have been termed "educational psychology." The phrase "American public education" connotes an overview of the public-school system including the levels of education, the personnel, and the school as an educational agency. However, these arbitrary headings embrace all the required professional work offered in the seven institutions. Most of the schools have courses organized in the several subject-matter areas that may be pursued as electives, directed or free.

Inspection of the table shows that educational psychology, principles of methods and management, principles of education, and directed student teaching are required by all seven of the state teachers colleges. Statistical methods and measurements are required only at Cedar Falls, Kirksville, and Whitewater. Mankato alone requires a course in the curriculum. Only Mankato and Normal require courses in American public education. Further inspection of the table shows that the range in the average amount of professional work is from 0.7 quarter hours in the curriculum to 5.7 quarter hours in educational psychology. The average amount of directed teaching in the seven institutions is 9.7 quarter hours. Kirksville requires the smallest amount of student teaching, Whitewater requires a variable amount. The maximum total of professional work in the seven colleges is 209 quarter hours, the average total is 29.9 quarter hours. Percentages, shown in the last column of the table, are self-explanatory.

Each of the subject-matter areas makes a contribution to the education of teachers. Courses in educational psychology are designed to integrate theory and practice. The work comprises personality development, mental hygiene, child and adolescent psychology, and social psychology. Psychological principles are ap-

plied in various ways to educational problems. Normal requires four and a half quarter hours of educational psychology for all students. During the junior year the student enrolled on the secondary-school curriculum may elect from 1.5 to 13.5 quarter hours of educational psychology and a similar amount during his senior year.<sup>1</sup> Students enrolled on the elementary-school curriculum may elect four and a half quarter hours of educational psychology during the senior year. At Normal, work in psychology is administered in eleven distinct courses.

A general requirement at Muncie is twelve hours of educational psychology.<sup>2</sup> Six other courses in the subject are outlined and may presumably be elected by students to complete quarter-hour requirements in professional work. Cedar Falls requires eight quarter hours, the work comprising psychology of adolescence and a study of learning with particular application to the elementary school and to the secondary school.<sup>3</sup> Seven courses in all are offered at Cedar Falls.

In addition to the four and a half quarter hours of educational psychology required by Kalamazoo a three-hour course is outlined in psycho-educational problems.<sup>4</sup> The work involves clinical studies, case studies, home visits, physical, psychological, and educational examinations, and interpretations and treatments.<sup>5</sup> A student may elect this course a second time inasmuch.

<sup>1</sup>Illinois State Normal University, Catalog, 1940-41, pp. 76, 82, and 154.

<sup>2</sup>Ball State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 64.

<sup>3</sup>Iowa State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 77.

<sup>4</sup>Western State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-41, pp. 121 and 165.

<sup>5</sup>Western State Teachers College maintains a Psycho-Educational Clinic to provide for both normal and maladjusted children and adults. Diagnoses are made and remedial measures are sug-

as repetitions do not involve repetition of content. The psychological work administered at Kalamazoo is not wholly professional.

The general requirement at Mankato is four quarter hours of educational psychology.<sup>1</sup> The course deals with the mental, the emotional, the physical, and the social aspects of childhood. One-third of the integrated course in education required of all students enrolled in the college deals largely with the principles of learning. In addition to the courses in psychology outlined by the college, Mankato has running parallel with the four years of academic and professional work a personnel program whose three main objects are to raise the scholarship of students by emphasizing devotion to study, to assist each student in the selection of majors and minors, and to study the personality adjustment of each student to his social, his economic, and his scholastic problems.

Two and a half quarter hours of educational psychology are required of all students enrolled at Kirksville and deal with the practical application of psychology to family life, to social situations, to business dealings, to reading, and to other problems of everyday living.<sup>2</sup> The student may elect any other of the five

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gested. The personnel consists of a director and two associates of the Health Service, members of the Speech Clinic, local psychiatrists, pediatricians, and ophthalmologists. The clinic is affiliated with the W. K. Kellogg Foundation, is a member of the Council of Social Agencies, and co-operates with the Kalamazoo Hospital, the Civic League, the Kalamazoo Emergency Relief Association, and the Kalamazoo County Agent. The aim of the clinic is to train a limited number of students to deal with psycho-educational problems involving educational, social, and emotional maladjustment. The average case load each month consists of approximately thirty clinical, advisory, and classification problems. About 34 per cent of the cases are referred to the clinic by social and relief agencies in Michigan, 35 per cent by school authorities, 18 per cent by parents and relatives, 10 per cent by other persons and organizations, and 3 per cent by private physicians.

<sup>1</sup>Mankato State Teachers College, Annual Catalog, 1940-41,  
p. 19.

<sup>2</sup>Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, p. 53.

courses outlined in educational psychology.

Whitewater offers only two courses in educational psychology.<sup>1</sup> A four and a half quarter-hour course is offered during the second semester of the sophomore year, with application of psychological principles to pupils on the secondary, the intermediate, and the primary levels. A three-hour course in the psychology of the elementary school subjects is offered during the summer session only.

History of education and principles of education are courses designed to orient the student in his professional environment. Such work acquaints the student with the nature of the educational process, with the aims and appropriate educational procedures, with political and social philosophies in relation to the national system of education, and with current practices in adapting the school offerings to modern and social conditions and individual needs. Comparisons with contemporary education in other countries are often made. Interaction is shown between the school and its social environment. In other words, the work of such courses integrates the work of the school with other social agencies in relation to the welfare of the individual. Such courses occupy approximately the same place in the program of professional education as do courses in educational psychology, methods and measurements.

Good teaching procedures are of major importance in the education of teachers. In all seven of the state teachers colleges courses in directed student teaching provide opportunities for prospective teachers to apply in actual teaching situations both their professional and their academic knowledge. In each of the colleges,

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<sup>1</sup>Whitewater State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, pp. 41 and 63.

student teaching is a requirement for the completion of any four-year curriculum. All the colleges maintain laboratory schools and many of them have co-operating schools as well. In most instances certain prerequisites are set up. For example, at Normal a student is eligible for teaching only after he has earned as many honor points as semester hours; a student on probation is ineligible for student teaching; and to be admitted to any teaching field students are required to offer the same amount of preparation in the subject-teaching field as is required by the North Central Association for teaching in the high schools of Illinois.<sup>1</sup> Since student teaching is a part of the sequence of work in education, students become eligible for teaching only as the courses that precede it in the sequence have been satisfactorily completed. Students enrolled on the four-year curriculum are assigned to teaching in the senior year. The program at Normal is typical of the other schools of this study.

At Whitewater the amount of teaching required is left largely to the discretion of the director of training.<sup>2</sup> Experienced teachers often need not do as much teaching as is required of the inexperienced. Mankato requires an eight quarter-hour course in student teaching of both elementary-school students and of secondary-school students.<sup>3</sup> If specialization is on the secondary level, a student must teach in either his major or his minor. An elective course in teaching is offered for advanced students who desire additional contact with the laboratory schools. At Kalamazoo students in their teaching are expected to take part in

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<sup>1</sup>Illinois State Normal University, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 65.

<sup>2</sup>Whitewater State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, p. 35.

<sup>3</sup>Mankato State Teachers College, Annual Catalog, 1940-41, pp. 102-03.



extracurriculum activities, such as planning assemblies, sponsoring clubs, and participating in meetings with parents as well as doing classroom teaching.<sup>1</sup> Kirksville offers fourteen special methods courses in addition to seven general methods courses.<sup>2</sup> The purpose is to give the student the best in educational theory and practice, to give him observation, participation, and teaching on the grade level or subject-matter field for which he is making preparation to teach; courses in student teaching at all grade levels are offered in the laboratory schools through the co-operation of regular teachers in the laboratory schools, certain members of the division of education, and members of the academic divisions.

#### Summary

Teachers colleges by devoting the first two years of their courses to general education are building up on the part of their students appreciations and understandings of present-day life and of contemporary civilization. The program of general education is the foundation on which both special and professional education are built. General education is that knowledge which rounds out the student's cultural background prerequisite to concentration in particular areas of subject matter and to the pursuance of professional work. In the program of general education material is drawn from many fields of human action and thought. Social studies, science and mathematics, language and literature, and health and physical education are given major emphasis. Applied and fine arts are also stressed. From a fourth to a third or about 30 per cent of the student's requirements for graduation are met in the

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<sup>1</sup>Western State Teachers College, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 181.

<sup>2</sup>Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, pp. 53-57.

broad comprehensive courses outlined in the major subject-matter fields.

During the third and the fourth years of their courses, teachers colleges implement the general knowledge of students by providing opportunity for subject-matter specialization or concentration. Analyses of the seven courses of study revealed a total of twenty-one different areas of specialization. About half that number were common to the seven schools. Generally speaking, the program of special education--administered usually by the major and minor system--is sufficiently flexible to permit desirable differentiation. Each subject-matter area makes its definite contribution to both the general and the special education of prospective teachers.

Professional work in the teachers colleges is designed to give students thorough grounding in the science and the art of teaching. Most of the professional work is offered during the third and the fourth years. Educational psychology, history and principles, methods and management, and actual teaching under direction occupy major places in the program of professional education. The amount of professional work is on the average approximately 15 per cent the total requirement for graduation.

CHAPTER XVI

PROGRAM FOR THE PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION OF  
TEACHERS IN STATE UNIVERSITIES

The preceding chapter described the program for the education of teachers in seven representative state teachers colleges of the Middle States with respect to three major aspects. The present chapter describes in a similar way the program for the education of teachers in the state universities of the eight states of this study.<sup>1</sup> The topics are discussed in detail and in the following order: (1) the program of general education, (2) the program of special education, and (3) the program of professional education.

The Program of General Education

In the schools and colleges of education in state universities of the Middle States there is no pattern of general education comparable to the program of general education in the state teachers colleges. Some of the universities admit students to the school or college of education when they enroll as freshmen in the university; some require students to submit credits for two years of college work satisfactorily completed; and still others permit the student to pursue professional work in the school or college of education while he continues work in some other college of the university. However, in most of the universities candidates for the school or college of education must satisfy certain pre-education sequences.

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<sup>1</sup>See chapter xiv for the program in historical perspective.

Without reservation Indiana University admits to its School of Education graduates of four-year commissioned high schools.<sup>1</sup> The student is privileged to choose his subject of specialization at the beginning of his freshman year. Iowa admits to its College of Education graduates of four-year accredited high schools.<sup>2</sup> However, professional courses are open only to juniors, seniors, and graduate students. The requirements in secondary credits for admission to any year of the college are identical with the requirements for admission to the standard curriculum in the Liberal Arts College. At Ohio State University an applicant for admission to the College of Education must be a graduate of a high school of first grade, or else by examination must obtain credit for fifteen units of high-school work.<sup>3</sup> Admission is in charge of the entrance board, which determines credit to be issued on all certificates and entrance examinations. The Ohio State University Intelligence Test required of all students entering the university has been approved by the State Department of Education as the entrance test to be administered by the College of Education. Only those students who pass the test successfully are permitted to pursue teacher-preparing curriculums.

In order to be admitted to the College of Education of the University of Illinois,<sup>4</sup> students are required to have completed two years of general work in some accredited college. One exception is made. During his freshman year the student may enroll in the curriculum in industrial education. Juniors from the

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<sup>1</sup>The Indiana University Bulletin, School of Education, XXXVIII, No. 11 (June 30, 1940), 11.

<sup>2</sup>The University of Iowa, Catalog, 1939-40 (June, 1940), p. 143.

<sup>3</sup>The Ohio State University Bulletin, College of Education, XLIV, No. 22 (May, 1940), 16.

<sup>4</sup>The University of Illinois Bulletin, Annual Register, 1939-40, p. 159.

College of Liberal Arts and Science are required to have completed the first two years of the new general curriculum; juniors from any other college of the university are required to have completed the first two years of the college curriculum; juniors from another institution must submit credits equivalent to the amount of work required during the freshman and the sophomore years at the University of Illinois. Admission to the School of Education in the University of Michigan may be secured only upon successful completion of two years of superior work in an accredited institution of higher learning.<sup>1</sup> For admission to the College of Education in the University of Minnesota the student must submit ninety quarter-hour credits, that is, two years of college work pursued with high standing.<sup>2</sup> Completion of four years of high school and ninety quarter hours of college work are exacted by the University of Missouri for admission to the School of Education.<sup>3</sup>

Students in the University of Wisconsin who elect teaching majors in the fields of academic subject matter are eligible to transfer to the School of Education when they have completed the regular requirements of the first two years of the general course in the College of Letters and Science.<sup>4</sup> Such students are advised to adopt the requirements of the first two years of one of the general courses in order not to spend more than four years in earning the Bachelor of Science degree in Education. Before transfer to the School of Education can be approved, the student

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<sup>1</sup>University of Michigan, School of Education Bulletin, XLI, No. 17, 14.

<sup>2</sup>Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, College of Education, 1938-40 (August, 1938), p. 7.

<sup>3</sup>University of Missouri Bulletin, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 186.

<sup>4</sup>Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, School of Education, 1939-40, p. 406.



must have made progress toward the completion of the general requirements and the selected pre-education sequence must have been made. No student will be accepted into the School of Education unless his scholastic record is sufficiently high to indicate probable success in some teaching field. Students who elect a teaching major in agriculture or in home economics may at the beginning of the junior year register concurrently in the College of Agriculture and in the School of Education. At the Indiana University most candidates for a teacher's license work for the degree of Bachelor of Science in education; but some students in other schools continue their work there pursuing in the School of Education only the professional courses required for the teacher's license. Examples are the Bachelor's degree in business education, in home economics, in public-school music, and the Bachelor of Arts degree in the College of Arts and Science--all with license to teach.<sup>1</sup> A similar plan prevails at the University of Illinois.<sup>2</sup> At the University of Minnesota holders of a Bachelor's degree may waive prerequisites and register in the course entitled "Preparation for Teaching," earn a minimum of forty-five quarter hours, and thus avoid delay in their preparation for teaching.<sup>3</sup>

Whenever a university has set up general requirements the school or college of education must meet those requirements; in addition, schools and colleges of education frequently make requirements of their own. Illinois requires three units of English for admission to all the curriculums, including the history and the appreciation of literature, and in English, oral composition

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<sup>1</sup>The Indiana University Bulletin, June, 1940, pp. 27-28.

<sup>2</sup>The University of Illinois, Annual Register, 1939-40, p. 159.

<sup>3</sup>Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, College of Education, August, 1938, p. 11.

and grammar. For admission to the curriculums in the college, junior standing in the university is required. In the School of Education in Indiana University, regardless of what option the student may be pursuing, such student must fulfill the general requirement of the university regarding physical education, military training, hygiene, and the work of junior and senior grade.<sup>1</sup> He must pursue also four semester hours of freshman English composition. The College of Education in the University of Iowa requires three semester hours of general psychology.<sup>2</sup> Michigan requires two courses in English composition.<sup>3</sup> At Minnesota the student at the time of his entrance to the College of Education is given a general examination designed to show his capacity to pursue professional curriculums in education.<sup>4</sup> During the freshman and the sophomore years men must complete three quarter hours of physical education, women must complete six quarter hours. For registration for the work of the senior year the student must sustain at the close of the junior year a qualifying examination consisting of two forms and of four sections. It includes the subject of specialization, professional work, and English form and composition.<sup>5</sup> At Missouri the student when a junior must sustain a proficiency test in English.<sup>6</sup> Ohio State University exacts the greatest amount of general work of the eight universities. Five quarter hours are required in English composition and reading,

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<sup>1</sup>The Indiana University Bulletin, June, 1940, p. 38.

<sup>2</sup>University of Iowa, Catalog, 1939-40 (June, 1940), p. 144.

<sup>3</sup>University of Michigan, School of Education Bulletin, XLI, No. 17 (August 26, 1939), 15.

<sup>4</sup>Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, August, 1938, p.7.

<sup>5</sup>Booklets giving the scope of these examinations may be obtained at the office of the Dean of the College of Education.

<sup>6</sup>University of Missouri Bulletin, Catalog, 1940-41, p.

five in introduction to literature, ten in social science, ten in natural science, and five in general elementary psychology.<sup>1</sup>

The College of Education of course complies with the general requirement of the university and prescribes in physical education six quarter hours for women, and three for men. Hygiene is required of all first-year students in the university; military science is required of men during the freshman and the sophomore years. The School of Education in the University of Wisconsin requires that the student be proficient in English expression, efficiency to be determined either by a grade in speech, or by a rating of the Speech Examination Clinic of the School of Education.<sup>2</sup>

Detailed discussion of the general work required of students in schools and colleges of education would involve discussion of the work offered in the colleges of letters and sciences. For example, at Illinois many courses may be elected from colleges and schools in the university other than the College of Education.<sup>3</sup> At Michigan instruction is given in the College of Letters, Science and Art and in such other departments of the university as the Dean of the School of Education may designate.<sup>4</sup> The College of Education of the Ohio State University includes in its curriculum courses in all departments of the university which contribute to the education of teachers and other educational workers.<sup>5</sup> At the

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<sup>1</sup>The Ohio State University Bulletin, College of Education, XLIV, No. 22 (May, 1940), 39.

<sup>2</sup>Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, School of Education, 1939-40, Serial No. 2423, p. 406.

<sup>3</sup>University of Illinois, Annual Register, May, 1940, p. 161.

<sup>4</sup>University of Michigan, School of Education, August 26, 1939, pp. 15-16.

<sup>5</sup>The Ohio State University Bulletin, May, 1940, p. 13.

University of Wisconsin the faculty of the School of Education as well as the faculties of the departments in the College of Letters and Science offer courses of junior and senior grade.<sup>1</sup>

Admission requirements to the schools and colleges of education in the eight institutions indicate that the work is based on the assumption that the teacher should have a broad and liberal education, that he should possess mastery in subjects or subject fields where he is planning to teach, that he should be informed on social, political, and economic problems, and that his responsibilities should go beyond the bounds of the classroom. This is evidenced in part by the fact that four of the universities specify two years of general college work antecedent to specialized education, that one university permits students to transfer to the school of education only after they have completed successfully two years of work on the general course in the College of Letters and Science; and in part by the fact that in all the universities students are advised to pursue courses other than professional during the first two years.

#### The Program of Special Education

The program of specialization in the university program for the education of teachers is designed to develop attitudes of mind, abilities in subject-matter fields and methods, and ideals of professional service. The work comprises individual courses, important in themselves or prerequisite to advanced work of like character; nonprofessional work of general cultural value; majors and minors in the subject of the student's chief interest--work in alignment with the demands of the public schools; and the elective courses the student may choose sometimes by freedom of choice,

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<sup>1</sup>Bulletin of the University of Wisconsin, 1939-40, No. 2423, p. 405.

again only upon advisement of the faculty counsellor. The advisory system practiced in the universities saves both time and effort by enabling the student at all times to direct his energies into their proper channels.

The program of specialization enables the school or college to prepare teachers for the various types of schools. Illinois and Wisconsin educate teachers for high-school positions only. Indiana prepares for regular high-school teaching, for high-school teaching in special subjects, and for elementary-school teaching.<sup>1</sup> The school prepares also teachers for defective children in special schools. In the undergraduate curriculum Iowa prepares teachers for both elementary and secondary schools.<sup>2</sup> No professional work may be undertaken before the junior year. All courses relating to the teaching of any subject, not announced in the Department of Education, will be counted only in the departments in which they are given; that is, for credit in the College of Education professional work must be pursued in the college.<sup>3</sup> Work on the elementary level is designed for the special education of school supervisors and leads to the degree of Bachelor of Science in school supervision.<sup>4</sup> Students are not accepted as candidates for the degree unless they give promise of ability to do successful work in some field of supervision. Iowa offers strong preparation also on the graduate level. Michigan,<sup>5</sup> Minne-

<sup>1</sup>The Indiana University Bulletin, June, 1940, p. 10.

<sup>2</sup>The University of Iowa, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 142.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 101.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 145.

<sup>5</sup>The University of Michigan, School of Education Bulletin, XLI, No. 17 (August 26, 1939), 13.



sota,<sup>1</sup> Missouri,<sup>2</sup> and Ohio State<sup>3</sup> prepare students for both elementary- and secondary-school teaching. Other types of training provided are not relevant here.

At Illinois candidates for baccalaureate degrees in the College of Education take certain required academic courses, elect other academic work, and concentrate in restricted groups of subjects in other colleges and schools of the university.<sup>4</sup> Students are required to specialize in three fields selected in consultation with the secretary of the appointments committee concerning the combinations of subjects most frequently requested by the high schools of the state. He must complete twenty semester hours in his first subject of specialization and at least sixteen semester hours in each of his two minors. Courses taken in other colleges prior to the student's admission to the college may be counted. Elective work may be chosen from courses offered by other colleges and schools in the university.

In the Indiana University one of the requirements for a first-grade teacher's certificate is graduation from a four-year standard college; hence, any candidate for a license to teach must meet the requirements for the Bachelor's degree.<sup>5</sup> Ten options are offered for the student's field of specialization of which the following is illustrative:

Option A. Those desiring this degree and the first-grade regular high school teacher's license must meet the following

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6. <sup>1</sup>Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, August, 1938, p.

<sup>2</sup>The University of Missouri, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 184.

<sup>3</sup>The Ohio State University Bulletin, May, 1940, p. 38.

<sup>4</sup>The University of Illinois, Annual Register, 1939-40, pp. 160-61.

<sup>5</sup>The Indiana University Bulletin, June, 1940, p. 26.

## requirements:

1. The minimum amount of academic work required in two fields for the teaching of which a license is desired.
2. An additional amount of approved elective work sufficient to bring the total amount of credit in each of these two fields up to not fewer than thirty semester hours.
3. The minimum amount of work in education required for the first grade license desired, plus sufficient additional approved courses in education to bring the total credit in education up to not fewer than twenty-five semester hours.
4. The election of twenty to twenty-five semester hours of work, depending on the license requirement, in some teaching field other than education or the two fields for which a license is sought, thus enabling a student to qualify for a license in a third field of study.<sup>1</sup>

Each student in the School of Education must include in his program all courses required for his option; he may have free election in the remaining hours required for graduation. Requisites for the regular high-school-teacher's license must include (1) presentation of credits in not more than one option under any subject group, unless full credits are also presented in some other subject group; (2) semester hours of university credit in at least two subject groups from the following: English, mathematics, Latin, French, German, Spanish, art, physical education, commercial subjects, library science, and speech.

For the standard secondary certificate valid for teaching grades seven and eight and high school the student in the College of Education at the University of Iowa is required to complete the following in the field of special education: fifteen semester hours in one subject-matter field and ten semester hours in at least two additional fields.<sup>2</sup> Two semester hours in principles of American government are required. The University High School serves as an experimental center or laboratory for work on the

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 38-46.

<sup>2</sup>The University of Iowa, Catalog, 1939-40, pp. 143-44.

secondary level.

In the School of Education of the University of Michigan the student is required to complete a sequence of courses prescribed for the particular curriculum on which he is enrolled.<sup>1</sup> The following academic requirements must be met: twelve semester hours from each of the following groups: (1) language and literature--ancient language and literature, modern language and literature and English; (2) science and mathematics--astronomy, physics, chemistry, mineralogy, geology, botany, zoölogy, psychology, and certain courses in the department of speech; and (3) social studies--history, economics, sociology, political science, anthropology, philosophy, and geography. The new state code of 1937 requires all teachers in Michigan to be prepared in three academic fields--a major and two minors rather than the old requirement of a major and a minor.<sup>2</sup> To complete the 124 semester hours required for graduation, the student may elect courses from those offered in the College of Literature, Science and Arts. Not more than 80 semester hours may be elected in any one of the three groups specified, not more than 40 semester hours may be elected in any one department of study, and at least two-thirds the work taken in residence beyond the sophomore year must be in courses not open to first-year students. Although the student may choose freely work to total from 30 to 40 semester hours, he is encouraged always to consult his official adviser.

At the University of Minnesota two years of work are required in the College of Education, the work to begin as soon as entrance requirements have been met.<sup>3</sup> A minimum of 45 quarter

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<sup>1</sup>The University of Michigan Bulletin, XLI, No. 17 (August 26, 1939), 15 and 57.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., December, 1939, p. 47.

<sup>3</sup>Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, August, 1938, pp. 11-12.

hours must be earned in residence. Upon entering the college, the student, under advisement, plans his program to secure an academic major and one or more academic minors, the major and the minor to be selected from subjects commonly taught in the high schools. By the close of the junior year the student is expected to have completed the courses in his major and his minors essential for the qualifying examinations required for admission to the work of the senior year. Students who have not met the junior requirements by the end of the year will not as a rule be admitted to the work of the senior year.

The School of Education of the University of Missouri requires that students preparing for high-school teaching have an academic major and also a minor based on teaching combinations demanded in the Missouri high schools.<sup>1</sup> Election of courses may be made only with the consent of advisers; students are not always permitted to select majors and minors in subjects of strongest appeal. The matter of personal likes and dislikes is held in check by consideration of the extent to which such subjects are taught in the high schools of Missouri and the extent to which the subjects fit into a teaching combination. The university offers opportunity for students to secure experience in extracurriculum activities, such as the direction of glee clubs, the coaching of athletic teams, the coaching of debate teams, the management of student publications, and the sponsorship of clubs of various kinds.

In the Ohio State University the College of Education offers a general curriculum for the preparation of teachers for junior and senior high schools.<sup>2</sup> Not later than the end of the

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<sup>1</sup>University of Missouri, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 188.

<sup>2</sup>The Ohio State University Bulletin, May, 1940, p. 43.

sophomore year the student enrolled on this curriculum must have recorded with the secretary of the college a declaration of his choice of a teaching field or fields. He is required to be prepared equally in two teaching fields and must complete a major in each of them. Students are encouraged to include in their programs a number of free electives chosen from the wide range of courses offered by the university. The electives may or may not be related to the student's field of specialization.

The School of Education in the University of Wisconsin requires the student to meet satisfactorily the requirements for a major and a minor or a major and two minors.<sup>1</sup> The major must comprise at least twenty semester hours. The completion of the major is conditioned by a comprehensive examination successfully passed by the student in his major field. In his minor subject, the student must complete at least fifteen semester hours, exclusive of the departmental teacher's course. Students who complete majors in the social studies are exempted from the requirements of minors.

The results of the analyses of the specialized programs in the schools and colleges of education in the eight state universities seem to justify the following conclusions: Programs of special education are planned to supplement the basic or general programs of education. Curriculums are designed for occupational training; that is, for preparation to teach in both the elementary and the secondary schools. Work is offered in most instances on both the undergraduate and the graduate level. Generally speaking, most specialization or concentration occurs in the junior and the senior years; majors and minors are built upon the general work of the freshman and the sophomore years. Attempt is defi-

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<sup>1</sup>The University of Wisconsin, Catalog, 1939-40, p. 407.



nately made to produce as teachers persons of sound basic preparation.

### The Program of Professional Education

The program of professional work in schools and colleges of education when classed categorically falls into groups of subjects dealing with philosophies, principles, and history of education; the psychology and technique of teaching; the administration and management of school systems; mental measurements and statistical methods; and directed student-teaching. Other courses of miscellaneous character are sometimes offered. Emphasis is more and more placed on the practical phases of the work. Frequent innovations in the program occur of which two of the most recent are the qualifying examination and the comprehensive examination. The former is given as a prerequisite to student teaching for the purpose of testing the student's knowledge of the subject matter in his academic major and minor; the latter is given just prior to graduation for the purpose of testing the student's mastery of professional preparation in general. In order further to elevate the standards of the profession, universities in general require graduation with an honor-point ratio in work offered on both the undergraduate and the graduate levels.

"The College of Education in the University of Illinois is concerned with learning as a process, the principles and methods of teaching, and the organization of schools as agencies of culture."<sup>1</sup> Students in the college take certain prescribed courses and elect other courses. All the introductory work, and most of the advanced, is open to students enrolled in other colleges and schools of the university who elect courses in education in order

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<sup>1</sup>University of Illinois Bulletin, Annual Register, 1939-40, pp. 159-65.

to qualify for a license to teach. Twenty semester hours in education are prescribed and must include educational psychology, technique of teaching, a special methods course in the subject of specialization, principles of secondary education, and student teaching. Effective September, 1940, a 3.5 average became prerequisite to directed teaching. A limited state high school certificate, valid for four years for teaching and supervising in the high school and in the seventh and the eighth grades, is granted without examination to graduates of the university who present certified credits fulfilling the following requirements: six semester hours in English grammar, composition, and rhetoric; fifteen semester hours in education including educational psychology and principles and methods of teaching; specialization in three subject-matter fields. The University High School serves the College of Education as a laboratory and experimental center.

The Indiana State Board has provided for two kinds of high-school licenses, the regular and the special.<sup>1</sup> The Indiana University School of Education attempts to satisfy the requirements of the board as well as standard seven of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.<sup>2</sup> Therefore, applicants for the regular high-school teacher's license must present graduation from the university four-year course and successful completion of educational courses pursued in the following order: elementary psychology or elementary educational psychology; advanced educational psychology; principles of instruction in high school;

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<sup>1</sup>The Indiana University Bulletin, June, 1940, p. 43.

<sup>2</sup>For appointment in a high school belonging to the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools the candidate must be a graduate of a standard four-year college course, and must have included in his preparation at least fifteen semester hours in education.

secondary education; special methods course in the first teaching subject in which the student desires his license; special methods course in the second teaching field; supervised teaching and observation--a total of nineteen semester hours. A course in tests and measurements is recommended. Before the student is eligible for directed student teaching, he must have completed at least twenty semester hours in the subject to be taught and must show proficiency in both written and spoken English. The student who is preparing to teach high-school English is required to undergo a test in English grammar. A teacher of forty months or more of successful teaching experience may be exempted from directed teaching.

The College of Education in the University of Iowa has based its program on the assumption that the teacher should have a broad and liberal education.<sup>1</sup> Work is offered on both the undergraduate and the graduate levels.<sup>2</sup> For the standard secondary certificate valid for teaching high school and grades seven and eight the student must take work in introduction to education, educational psychology including measurements, special methods, observation and laboratory practice, and an educational elective

<sup>1</sup>The University of Iowa, Catalog, 1939-40, pp. 142-43.

<sup>2</sup>Graduate work in the College of Education is carried on in accordance with the general regulations of the Graduate College with certain special requirements imposed by the dean and faculty of the College of Education. Graduate students in education are registered in the Graduate College and all degrees are conferred by that college. Course organization consists of introductory and advanced work running throughout the academic year in each of the following fields; elementary education, secondary education, administration, educational psychology, tests and measurements, statistical methods, and history and philosophy of education. The first year of graduate work is generalized rather than specialized. The student during that year is expected to carry basic introductory courses as a background including some work in the history and the philosophy of education. He is then permitted to specialize in the field of his major interest. Specialization in advanced work is through seminars, laboratory units, and individual research.

usually a second methods course--a total of fifteen semester hours.

The School of Education in the University of Michigan has listed more than two hundred thirty separate and distinct units of work, many of which have been initiated within the past two decades.<sup>1</sup> The school has developed an extensive educational program with standards specific and definite. The professional work is offered in seven departments of the school; namely, history and principles of education; educational administration and supervision; educational psychology; mental measurements and statistics; teaching of special subjects and directed teaching; vocational education and vocational guidance; physical education and school health; and public health nursing. In 1938, there was organized a correlated course in education which includes units of work in the prescribed areas. Having spent five or six weeks in classroom instruction, students teach in various city school systems throughout the country where they devote their time to both observation and participation. They return to the university to pursue classwork for the remainder of the semester. The correlated course regularly carries the required seventeen semester hours of credit in education and includes work in educational psychology, history of education, introduction to secondary education, methods courses in the major and the minor fields, and directed teaching.

For some time co-operative arrangement has been made with a number of high schools throughout the country whereby student-teaching facilities have been available to certain seniors and others interested in types of work not readily secured in the University High School.<sup>2</sup> In some instances, teaching internships

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<sup>1</sup>The University of Michigan, School of Education Bulletin, December, 1939, pp. 43-51.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 57.

have been secured for graduates, covering an entire school year. Under those conditions the student has usually been permitted to devote part time to paid instructional service and part time to study for an advanced degree in the university or in some other college.

For the Bachelor's degree and a teaching certificate in the College of Education of the University of Minnesota the student must complete twenty-six quarter hours of professional work.<sup>1</sup> Required courses include introduction to secondary-school teaching, educational psychology, high-school administration and technique of high-school instruction, special methods and student-teaching in the major field, and a special methods course in the minor field. Special methods and student-teaching are combined into a one-year course extending throughout the senior year. All prerequisites must have been completed before the beginning of the senior year. In order to teach, the student must satisfactorily undergo a qualifying examination covering materials usually taught in the secondary schools and additional phases of the major field taught in the college courses, as well as the fundamentals of educational psychology, secondary education, and methods or techniques of instruction. Section three of the examinations tests the student's knowledge of English form and composition. By law, certification is automatic for graduates of the College of Education.

The aim of the School of Education in the University of Missouri is to furnish the student with a thorough fund of knowledge and at the same time to teach him how to use that knowledge

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<sup>1</sup>Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, August, 1938, pp. 12 and 21-23.



in actual teaching situations.<sup>1</sup> Requirements for graduation with the degree of Bachelor of Science in Education include the completion of the professional work in education listed in the various curriculums. A minimum of twenty semester hours in education must include educational psychology, history of education, technique of teaching in high school, high-school administration, preventive medicine, teaching of the subject of specialization, and student-teaching. A definite sequence in educational work is required.

The College of Education in the Ohio State University requires the following professional courses: educational survey, educational psychology, theory and practice in secondary-school teaching, methods courses in each teaching field, student-teaching in secondary schools, philosophy of education, and history of modern education.<sup>2</sup> Professional electives may be chosen in all education courses offered except five, in thirty-six courses in psychology, and in two courses in sociology--educational sociology, and social order and social control. Not later than the last quarter of the junior year every student electing supervised teaching in his senior year must file application with the director of student-teaching. A minimum of seven quarter hours of teaching is required. The work involves observation, participation, individual and group conferences, and responsible teaching. Prerequisites include senior standing, three-fourths the work completed in the student's major field, and an honor-point ratio. Appropriate methods courses may be completed previously or pursued concurrently with student-teaching.

In the School of Education of the University of Wisconsin

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<sup>1</sup>The University of Missouri, Catalog, 1939-40, pp. 193-94.

<sup>2</sup>The Ohio State University, College of Education, 1940-41 (May, 1940), pp. 32 and 111-12.

preparation rests upon a basis of sound general education and includes professional courses dealing with the principles, psychology, and the practice of teaching.<sup>1</sup> Graduate courses in the various fields of education include opportunity for research and are offered for those who recognize the desirability of study beyond the four years of college work. Completion of the following professional work is required: the child, his nature and his needs; the school and society; the nature and the direction of learning; teaching of the major subject; and two electives in the department of education--a total of eighteen semester hours. Only students qualifying for degrees in the school may receive the university teachers' certificate and the recommendation of the School of Education, with the exception that students in special courses (College of Letters and Science) having a complete two-year or four-year curriculum, such as the course in chemistry, the course in the humanities, and the schools of commerce, journalism, and music may retain their classification in the College of Letters and Science, and register concurrently in the School of Education in order to receive the university teachers' certificate.

The program for the education of teachers in schools and colleges of education in the eight universities have so far been discussed only in terms of the preparation of high-school teachers. Inasmuch as the universities give equal attention to the preparation of teachers for the elementary schools, attention is now turned to the program designed for the preparation of elementary-school teachers. In the main, the program is but a modification of the program for the preparation of teachers for the high schools. It is to be recalled that neither Illinois nor Wisconsin provides

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<sup>1</sup>University of Wisconsin, Announcements of Courses, 1939-40, pp. 405-09.

preparation in the university for elementary-school teachers.

The State Board of Education in Indiana has stipulated two kinds of elementary-school licenses both of which may be secured at Indiana University. These are termed the lower elementary and the upper elementary. Students enrolled in elementary education pursue the new four-year curriculum and work toward the Bachelor of Science degree in Education under specified option.<sup>1</sup> Each student, before he is recommended for a license, must have passed the standard tests in spelling, handwriting, and arithmetic and must show proficiency in both oral and written English. In all his university work--professional as well as academic--the student must maintain a minimum average of C.

The University of Iowa offers courses to meet the requirements for the advanced elementary and the elementary principal's certificates.<sup>2</sup> The work seemingly is pursued in the Graduate College. No set curriculums leading to advanced degrees are provided, but each student pursues an independent line of study in which regular university courses--graduate and undergraduate--are combined with research under the direction of professors.<sup>3</sup> The candidate selects a major subject and organizes a schedule of studies under the guidance of the major department. His schedule must provide for concentration in a major field and at the same time must spread into a minor field, either related or nonrelated. At least four semester hours must be taken in the minor field. For a Master's degree the student's work culminates in a comprehensive examination. Students who do not desire to qualify for a degree

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<sup>1</sup>The Indiana University Bulletin, June, 1940, p. 43.

<sup>2</sup>The University of Iowa, Catalog, 1939-40, pp. 144 and 166.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 172.

may select any advanced courses for which they are prepared.

Effective under the new state code of Michigan all teachers in that state must be prepared in three academic fields.<sup>1</sup> The recommendation for elementary teachers is four minors, though a major and two minors in strictly elementary subjects are permissible. The four minors consisting of a minimum of fifteen semester hours each, comprise the following subject-matter areas: social studies, science, English, and the arts. From fifteen to sixteen semester hours of professional work are required and are constituted as follows: education in the United States, educational psychology, psychology of the elementary school subjects, educational measurements, and four semester hours of directed teaching. Elective work in education includes mental measurements, philosophy of education, psychology of the preschool child, administration, experimentation, teaching of the elementary school subjects, the psychology and the education of exceptional children, and individualized instruction.

For a time co-operative arrangements have been made with the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit whereby three students especially interested in primary work may spend one semester of the senior year in attendance at that school and have the credit earned there accepted as full residence credit at the university toward a degree and a teacher's certificate in the School of Education.<sup>2</sup> Recently, arrangement has been made with the four state teachers colleges--and with certain other teacher-education institutions in the nation--whereby a student desiring the state elementary-school certificate, on petition to the School of Education, may

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<sup>1</sup>Bulletin of the University of Michigan, December, 1939, p. 47.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 57.

spend a semester of the senior year in one of those institutions and receive advanced credit in the School of Education at the university.<sup>1</sup>

At Minnesota students in the College of Education who are not planning to teach in the high schools may take an alternate form of the qualifying examination administered at the close of the junior year.<sup>2</sup> That form includes elementary education and methods of teaching in the elementary schools. The student at the beginning of his junior year enrolls on Curriculum I A, completes one academic minor and eighteen quarter hours credit in each of two additional fields of concentration. Specialization may include--with the approval of the major adviser--the junior-college subjects already completed at the university or elsewhere. Much of the work of the junior year should be in the following academic subjects: English, a foreign language, geography, history, a social science other than history, natural science--preferably general science--mathematics, art, music, library methods, and physical education. A general and an elementary education major of forty-five quarter hours are required. This includes introduction to elementary teaching, introduction to statistical methods, theory and practice of the art of teaching, intermediate methods, teaching of elementary school subjects, public school administration, the elementary school curriculum, supervision and improvement of instruction, and diagnostic and remedial instruction.<sup>3</sup>

Students in the University of Missouri are during their

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<sup>1</sup>In the University Elementary School no directed teaching for the typical undergraduate is permitted. Graduates of experience may sometimes conduct experimental classwork there.

<sup>2</sup>University of Minnesota Bulletin, August, 1938, pp. 12 and 40.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.



freshman and sophomore years advised to study carefully the program of specialization so that when they enter the School of Education in the junior year they may have no difficulty in planning their work there.<sup>1</sup> The suggested curriculum for teachers in the elementary schools, including the kindergarten, comprises work in the following fields: language and literature, fine and applied arts, social studies, health, and academic electives. Twenty-five semester hours of required professional work consist of educational psychology, elementary school organization and management, technique of teaching in elementary schools, history of American education, diagnostic testing and remedial teaching, and music methods and materials for teachers in the elementary schools. The student may elect nineteen semester hours of work. A total of thirty-two courses in education are offered in the elementary field. Students enrolled on the elementary curriculum may complete a minor in geography to total eighteen semester hours. It is recommended that students enrolled on the elementary curriculum take "Song Literature for Children," and "Introduction to Music," which includes a brief survey of the fundamentals of music and of representative compositions of well-known composers.

All students enrolled on the elementary curriculum in the College of Education in the Ohio State University are required to take achievement tests during the spring of the freshman year in reading, spelling, handwriting, and English composition.<sup>2</sup> Standards of achievement set up by the Department of Education as suitable for candidates for teaching must be attained before the beginning of the junior year. At least a week of participation in

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<sup>1</sup>University of Missouri, Catalog, 1940-41, p. 191.

<sup>2</sup>The Ohio State University, College of Education, 1940-41 (May, 1940), p. 71.

a public-school situation prior to the opening of school in the fall is expected of elementary students before they enter upon a major sequence. Not later than the beginning of the junior year the student must file with the secretary of the college the statement that he is enrolled on the elementary curriculum and expecting to be a teacher or a supervisor in the elementary schools. Professional courses required of all students on this curriculum are pupil personnel in elementary education, contemporary elementary educational practice, theory and practice in elementary education, philosophy of education, and teaching children's literature. Ten quarter hours of student-teaching are required.

#### Summary

In the schools and colleges of education in state universities there is no established pattern of general education. There are variations in admission requirements and in scholarship attainment. Four of the universities specify general college work antecedent to specialized and professionalized work. The general work need not always be taken in the school or college of education. However, all the universities advise students to pursue work other than professional during the freshman and the sophomore years.

The program of specialization enables the universities to prepare teachers for the various types of public schools. With the exception of the University of Illinois and the University of Wisconsin, the universities of the Middle States educate teachers for both elementary and high schools. Generally, students take the required academic sequence, elect some academic work, and concentrate in restricted groups of subjects in line with the public-school demands. The program of special education is planned to supplement the basic or general program of education during the

freshman and the sophomore years. Work is offered usually on both the undergraduate and the graduate levels.

The professional work offered in schools and colleges of education deals with philosophies, principles, history, psychology and techniques, administration and management, mental measurements and statistical methods, and directed student-teaching. In order to elevate the standards of the teaching profession, the universities frequently require graduation with honor-point ratio. Approximately twenty semester hours of professional work are required. Most of the universities observe the ruling of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools that candidates for appointments to high-school positions be graduates of a standard four-year college course, having included in their preparation at least fifteen semester hours in education.

## CHAPTER XVII

### CURRENT PROBLEMS AND PRACTICES IN TEACHER EDUCATION

The preceding chapters of this investigation have discussed teacher education in the Middle States historically and in the main chronologically. This chapter defines current problems and their instrumentation through the practices involved in the effort to provide an adequate supply of professionally educated teachers for the public schools. The problems are described in section one. The practices are described in section two under the following headings: (1) state-wide co-operative teacher education, (2) selection of candidates for teaching, (3) the personnel program in teacher education, (4) the summer workshop in teacher education, ( 5) integration in teacher education, (6) the five-year program in teacher education, and (7) the laboratory approach to teacher education.

#### Current Problems in Teacher Education

Perhaps no other educational problem is receiving more serious consideration than is that of the preparation of teachers. Apparently clear recognition prevails that the improvement in the program of teacher education is essential to the solution of the problem of making education function in the lives of boys and girls. Recent studies reveal that young people have not been properly inducted into the society in which they must live--they have not been adequately prepared for participation in family life, they have not been sufficiently schooled in the democratic pro-

cesses for competent citizenship, and they have not been directed toward vocations in accordance with opportunities for employment. That education fails too often in this respect is evidenced by numerous studies, such as those made under the auspices of the American Association of School Administrators,<sup>1</sup> the American Youth Commission of the American Council on Education,<sup>2</sup> and the Regent's Inquiry in the State of New York.<sup>3</sup>

A primary function recognized today for the secondary school is that of developing in pupils attitudes, interests, and understandings that will enable them to participate in a democratic society. It follows necessarily that proper education for secondary teachers must be defined in terms of modern life. Among other things, modern society demands of its secondary teachers understanding of education in relation to present-day life, understanding of the nature of adolescence and of its problems, ability

<sup>1</sup>Education for Family Life. Washington: American Association of School Administrators, 1941.

<sup>2</sup>See the following publications:

Howard M. Bell, Matching Youth and Jobs. A study of occupational adjustment, prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1940.

Bell, Youth Tell Their Story. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

Joseph K. Folsom, Youth, Family, and Education. With sections by Winifred E. Bain and Ellen Miller. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1941.

Lewis L. Lorwin, Youth Work Programs. Prepared for the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1941.

Homer P. Rainey, How Fare American Youth? A report to the American Youth Commission. Washington: American Council on Education, 1938.

What the High Schools Ought to Teach. Report of a special committee prepared for the American Youth Commission and other co-operating organizations. Washington: American Council on Education, 1940.

<sup>3</sup>Francis T. Spaulding, High School and Life. The Regent's Inquiry. New York: The McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1938.



to participate effectively in school and community projects, and willingness to study the community in order to further a functional educational program.<sup>1</sup>

The major problem that faces teacher-educating institutions is to effect programs that are functional. The problem assumes many minor phases of which the following are typical: What should be the educational aims of teacher-educating institutions? What specific attitudes, habits, understandings should be inculcated in prospective teachers? What desirable personality traits should be developed in prospective teachers? What should be the course content of teacher-educating institutions in order that they may provide prospective teachers integrated experiences? What methods of approach will best achieve the desired ends?

Significant phases of the current problem were revealed at the Midwest Conference on Teacher Education convened at Culver, Indiana, May 17-18, 1941, when the following topics were discussed: (1) securing integration in the graduate student's program, (2) relative merits of seminars and workshops in the graduate programs, (3) relationship of field work to class work, (4) place of training in research as an element in the graduate program for teachers or school administrators, and (5) the internship plan of study toward the Master's degree in Education.<sup>2</sup> Incidentally, it was decided at the conference to have a series of annual meetings to afford opportunity for members of the faculties of education of midwestern universities to discuss common problems.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Russell T. Gregg, "Professional Graduate Education for Secondary-School Teachers," School and Society, LIII (June 14, 1941), 745 ff.

<sup>2</sup>"A Midwestern Conference on the Education of Teachers," School and Society, LIII (June 21, 1941), 765.

<sup>3</sup>Present members are Northwestern University, Purdue University, the University of Chicago, the University of Cincinnati, and the state universities of Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Ohio (Ohio State), and Wisconsin.

In the Middle States as elsewhere teacher education is rapidly moving away from the day when it consisted of only subject-matter courses and of methods courses,<sup>1</sup> and when teachers were considered merely depositories for educational philosophies.<sup>2</sup>

W. Carson Ryan, under the sponsorship of the Commonwealth Fund of New York, during the academic year 1935-36 traveled widely and visited schools and clinics of various kinds throughout the United States to find out what is going on in education at every level. In describing some of the changes that are taking place in the field of mental hygiene or wholesome living, Ryan has the following to say with respect to teacher education:

A new kind of teacher education is imperative if there is to be a modern educational program that meets the real needs of society and includes wholesome personality as a major objective. Few institutions preparing teachers, whether normal schools, teachers colleges, or departments or schools of education in colleges and universities, have as yet taken the necessary path. Most of them simply do not start with the basic human requirements in teaching.

What these schools need is a program that gives more direct attention than is usually given to mental hygiene, in terms of normal growth and development of children; greater emphasis, in existing psychology courses and elsewhere, upon emotional factors and the sciences underlying the understanding of human behavior; close contact with children in a child guidance clinic or other observation and training centers; a rich cultural opportunity in the creative arts; and a wholesome social and recreational life in the training institution itself that will help make mental health a part of the everyday experience of those who are to be teachers.<sup>3</sup>

A survey of current educational literature reveals that institutions engaged in the preparation of teachers actually are formulating individual philosophies so that their programs will

<sup>1</sup>Kenneth L. Heaton, William G. Camp, and Paul B. Diederich, Professional Education of Experienced Teachers, p. 19. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940.

<sup>2</sup>N. Conger, "Selecting Courses and Materials for the Education of Teachers," School and Society, LIII (January 4, 1941), 20-23.

<sup>3</sup>W. Carson Ryan, Mental Health Through Education, pp. 70-71. New York: The Commonwealth Fund, 1938.

be more unified or integrated, so that theory will be in advance of practice, and so that teachers will be assured the type of preparation that society is demanding. These institutions recognize two important facts: first, that the teacher is a person, an individual who should live a normal life as a member of a community; and second, that the teacher is the servant of the community, of the state, and of the nation; and that as such, he should be provided the attitudes, the understandings, the abilities, and the skills essential to success in his profession.<sup>1</sup>

#### Current Practices in Teacher Education

That national endeavors as well as sectional efforts are being put forth for the improvement of teacher education is evidenced by the twofold project of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education--the co-operative study in which twenty collegiate institutions and fourteen public-school systems are actively engaged; and, the all-state program in which the states of Georgia, Michigan, and New York are making intensive studies of the problems of teacher education--by the concerted effort of the Midwest Conference on Teacher Education of the American Association of School Administrators; and by the endeavors of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association. Attention is now turned to the various means through which an attempt is being made to achieve a functional educational program throughout the middle-states area.

State-wide co-operative teacher education.---Legal provision for the control of state teachers colleges and colleges or schools of education in state universities shows that the profes-

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<sup>1</sup>Conger, op. cit.

sional education of teachers is recognized as a state function. Certification requirements by which the state exercises control over the preparation of teachers by private institutions are further evidence of teacher education as a state function. It is logical, therefore, that state-wide effort should be made to coordinate the education of teachers. A notable example is the experiment now under way in Michigan.

As early as October, 1933, the State Board of Education called into conference representative school men to consider the problems relating to the education of teachers. In compliance with a resolution of that conference, the State Board of Education created the Extra Legal Advisory Planning Commission of eleven members to serve the board as advisers concerning teacher education and teacher certification.<sup>1</sup> In 1935 the legislature delegated to the State Board of Education responsibility for the certification of all teachers of the state.<sup>2</sup> The board requested the Extra Legal Advisory Planning Commission to study the problem and to formulate a new teacher certification code. That code, perfected after a year of study by the commission, was officially adopted in May, 1936, to become effective in June, 1939.<sup>3</sup>

Also in 1935 the Department of Public Instruction inaugurated a project of curriculum development and instructional improvement. The superintendent of public instruction appointed a committee known as the Curriculum Steering Committee whose duty it was to confer with the department with respect to curriculum and instructional development.<sup>4</sup> Jointly this committee and the Extra Legal Advisory Planning Commission induced the state super-

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<sup>1</sup>Michigan Cooperative Teacher Education Study, p. 5.  
State Board of Education, Bulletin No. 1. Lansing, March, 1940.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 6.

intendent of public instruction to suggest to the State Board of Education the advisability of a comprehensive study of teacher education. In June, 1939, upon recommendation of the superintendent of public instruction, the State Board of Education appointed a committee to formulate plans for the study. The board approved the suggestions of the planning committee and requested the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education to include Michigan with New York and Georgia for a state-wide study. That request was granted, and financial aid was provided by the commission for a three-year project beginning January 1, 1940, and ending December 31, 1942.<sup>1</sup> The State Board of Education created a directing committee of ten with the state superintendent of public instruction at the head, and an advisory committee of fifty-three representatives of educational institutions and school systems in the state whose aims are the improvement of the teaching service.<sup>2</sup> Twenty-two institutions of collegiate rank are co-operating. All school systems in the state concerned with the growth of teachers in service are considered a part of the study. Participation is sought on the part of both school and lay people so that current educational practices may be examined from every angle.

The basic purpose of the study is to find out by intensive research desirable practices in teacher education in Michigan and throughout the United States and to adapt those practices to the program of teacher education in local institutions in Michigan on the elementary, the secondary, the undergraduate, the graduate, and the adult education levels. The study is concerned with the

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<sup>1</sup>Harvey L. Turner, "A Brief Synopsis to Date of the Michigan Coöperative Teacher Education Study." Lansing, December, 1940.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.



education and the service of teachers from their initial period of education to the time of their retirement from service. Both general and professional phases of education are considered.<sup>1</sup>

All co-operating agencies are encouraged to attack the problems of their interests in their own way. There is no pre-conceived plan of attack. School systems are urged to hold staff meetings and conferences involving patrons and other lay citizens with opportunity provided for free exchange of ideas. The Michigan Teacher Education Committee and the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education will render every possible assistance, but have no prescriptions to impose. The state co-ordinator early visited all twenty-two teacher-educating institutions to invite participation and to discuss with presidents or other key persons the purposes and the plans of the study.

A state-wide invitational conference was held in Mount Pleasant from August 18 to August 24, 1940, for the purpose of clarifying, defining, and stating the major issues confronting the state program of teacher education.<sup>2</sup> The conference enabled participants to have co-operative learning experiences and to formulate plans for an ever-improving teacher-education program in Michigan. That conference brought together for six days a cross-section of educational personnel in the state. One hundred twenty-five representatives from institutions and school systems met to discuss pertinent issues and to formulate plans for future study. An invitational conference on general education was held in Ann Arbor in January, 1941, with approximately one hundred

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<sup>1</sup>Michigan Coöperative Teacher Education Study, pp. 6-7. State Board of Education, Bulletin No. 1. Lansing, March, 1940.

<sup>2</sup>Digest of Proceedings and Addresses, Michigan Conference on Teacher Education, Mount Pleasant, August 18 to 24, 1940. Bulletin No. 2. (December, 1940), p. 3.

fifty selected participants from all the state's institutions of higher learning in attendance and representatives from the public-school systems and other educational agencies.<sup>1</sup> The potential contribution of the various fields of liberal education to the preparation of teachers as effective persons was the general theme. Social purposes as guides to the nature and the content of general education, with personal living as an essential factor, were stressed.

The Michigan Committee on Teacher Education is responsible for leadership in correlating the entire educational program of the state.<sup>2</sup> Its initial purpose was to implement the better known practices of teacher education; but that purpose has broadened. The Coöperative Teacher Education Study has evolved significant and challenging responsibilities for the state in meeting its obligation to provide preservice preparation for both elementary and secondary teachers and to provide the means for inservice improvement of public-school teachers. The study rightfully concerns itself with all the experiences that have educational significance for the teacher at any particular time. The education of teachers is a continuous process; the study of teacher education should broaden in purpose as new needs arise.

Selection of candidates for teaching.--As a result of experimental procedures and practices the character of the public-school teacher became what it is today. The Middle States have not been unmindful of that fact. Both the University of Michigan and the University of Minnesota, for example, have pioneered in

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<sup>1</sup>"The Newsletter," Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, Vol. I, No. 7 (April, 1941).

<sup>2</sup>Digest of Proceedings and Addresses, Michigan Conference on Teacher Education, Mount Pleasant, August, 1940. Bulletin No. 2 (December, 1940), p. 41.

the field of teacher education.

In 1930 the University of Michigan instituted a system of examinations termed the qualifying and the comprehensive examinations whose purpose it was to aid in the selection of candidates for teaching.<sup>1</sup> The qualifying examination is administered to students at the close of their junior year to test their knowledge of their academic majors or minors. Students who do not successfully pass the examinations are not permitted to enter upon the work of the senior year. The comprehensive examination is administered the student immediately preceding graduation for the purpose of testing his mastery of certain phases of the professional work. In order to receive a teacher's license, the student must pass the examination successfully.

The University of Minnesota has experimented even more widely than has the University of Michigan with the comprehensive examination in the selection of candidates for teaching. An examination comprising four distinct parts was instituted in the University of Minnesota in 1932: an examination in English usage; an examination in education covering the materials in the elementary courses at the junior-year level; an examination in the secondary field in the student's major teaching subject; and an examination in the student's major teaching field at the high-school level.<sup>2</sup> The examinations in English usage in the field of elementary education were from the outset required of all the students. After a year's experience all four were made compulsory. The experiment was discontinued at the end of the seventh year, 1939, with the following conclusions drawn on the basis of studies that had been

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<sup>1</sup>The University of Michigan School of Education Bulletin, XI, No. 3 (December, 1938), 45.

<sup>2</sup>Charles W. Boardman, Letter, December 14, 1940.

made: (1) None of the examination techniques had proved satisfactory bases for the selection of candidates for teaching; (2) the examinations undoubtedly had contributing values, but they had not been the deciding factor; and (3) the results seemed to indicate distinct differences in students.<sup>1</sup> For example, students whose majors were in mathematics or science differed from students whose majors were in library or language, and so on.

Upon discontinuance of the qualifying examinations in the University of Minnesota, a personnel committee was appointed to discover by experimentation whether or not traits other than those measured by the comprehensive examinations are valid bases for the selection of candidates for teaching.<sup>2</sup> All entering students are required to take the Miller Analogies Test, the Sophomore Culture Test, the Coöperative English Test, the Coöperative Test in Contemporary Affairs, and the Evans Introversion Extroversion Test. Most students take also the Strong Vocational Interest Test. In 1939, the committee appointed to reorganize the curriculum in the required sequence developed a comprehensive examination in the work of the junior year which is considered the best examination of its kind yet developed on the University of Minnesota campus.<sup>3</sup> The examination is of the applied type and is designed to measure the use of information rather than to measure information itself. The sole purpose of all the comprehensive examinations at the University of Minnesota, according to Boardman, has been for the purpose of gathering data for research in the hope that these will indicate ways by which either the selection of teachers may be made more adequately, or the work in the courses may be taught more satisfactorily. The unique contribution of the University

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

of Minnesota has been the effort to measure the results of the experimentation.

The personnel program in teacher education.--For the past few decades there has been greatly increased enrollment in teacher-educating institutions throughout the United States, owing largely to the increase in high-school graduation. However, not all candidates who desire to become teachers are suited to that profession. Hence, the tendency in teacher-educating institutions is toward selective admission of students by means of recommendations of secondary-school principals, presentation of certificates of good moral character, submission of a minimum number of acceptable secondary school credits, required entrance examinations, and prescribed physical and mental examinations. Some of these factors have been discussed in previous sections of this study. But the student personnel program inaugurated primarily to provide social, emotional, and economic adjustment for students thereby lessening the high rate of student mortality among desirable candidates for teaching is yet to be considered. The program involves orientation week, health and physical education, extracurriculum activities and guidance, and adjustment services of various kinds. The personnel program in teacher-educating institutions is treated in detail in this section of the chapter.

Orientation- or freshman-week has received widespread attention. At fall registration a week has been designated as orientation week for freshmen and others enrolling in the institutions for the first time. Attendance is usually compulsory for those students for whom the program is planned. The week is devoted to a great variety of activities including talks on such topics as how to study, how to use the library, college traditions, healthful living conditions, and extracurriculum activities. . Tours are made



of the campus, the town or city, and the surrounding community. Testing programs are frequently carried on; and social and recreational facilities are discussed. The week is important for establishing basic contacts upon which more permanent personnel and guidance procedures may be built.

Adequate personnel programs continue beyond orientation week. A number of institutions in the Middle States now have directors of student personnel who assemble many types of information concerning students, the data to be analyzed for the student's welfare. The larger institutions have personnel administrative units managed by the dean of men, the dean of women, the registrar, the director of personnel, the director of student placement, the college physician and nurses, and the faculty counsellors. For example, the Mankato State Teachers College has instituted a unit known as the Personnel Unit whose threefold aim is to raise the scholarship of the student body, to assist students in the proper selection of major and minor fields of study, and to help students adjust themselves socially, emotionally, and economically.<sup>1</sup> The program is administered by the personnel committee, and parallels the four years of academic and professional work. In the Illinois State Normal University about forty counsellors render continuous service beginning with the first contacts made during orientation week. Each counsellor has assigned to him about twenty students, selected usually on the basis of geographical location.<sup>2</sup>

Participation in extracurriculum activities is considered essential in every student's preparation for teaching. Typical of general extracurriculum activities is work connected with

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<sup>1</sup>School Progress, Catalog, 1941-42, XXII (February, 1941), 19-33.

<sup>2</sup>Illinois State Normal University Bulletin, Catalog, 1940-41, XXXVIII (May, 1940), 41.

dramatics, the school paper, religious organizations, musical organizations, class annuals, subject-matter clubs, honor societies, and social and miscellaneous clubs. A few of the colleges schedule regular courses in the fields related to student personnel. For example, the Whitewater State Teachers College offers work in college life and problems, setting forth the policies, the practices, and the ideals of college life and including educational and personal guidance.<sup>1</sup> The Illinois State Normal University offers a number of courses in the field of student personnel. The course comprising materials and methods in character education relates the program of character education to the entire field of education.<sup>2</sup> The purpose of the course in extracurriculum activities in the secondary schools is to give an overview on such activities in general, emphasizing types of activities, aims, and values of those activities, and supplying practice in organizing, administering, and supervising them.<sup>3</sup> The course in school and community relations presents facts concerning visitation, participation in community activities, the local newspaper, and so on.<sup>4</sup> The course in guidance includes a study of individual capacities, personal factors, and the giving of information in making vocational choices.<sup>5</sup> It gives special emphasis to the role of the classroom teacher in the guidance program.

The Northeast Missouri State Teachers College maintains a bureau of guidance where are used the best psychological instruments and materials that are available. Counsellors help students

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<sup>1</sup>Bulletin of the Whitewater State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940-42, Serial No. 236 (June, 1940), p. 63.

<sup>2</sup>Illinois State Normal University Bulletin, Catalog, 1940-41, XXXVIII (May, 1940), 103.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 105.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 104.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 106.

to make decisions concerning their preparation for teaching. The bureau is a department of the college through which students find assistance with physical, social, educational, and vocational problems.<sup>1</sup> Western State Teachers College at Kalamazoo has a building for housing the personnel activities. Erected in 1939, the edifice contains the infirmary, the offices of the deans, of the chairman of the graduate council, of members of the department of education, of the faculty counsellors. It has both a psychoeducational clinic and a psychological laboratory.<sup>2</sup> In Walwood Hall, likewise, is a general lounge, a soda bar, a cafeteria, men's lounge, and recreation rooms. The large ballroom on the second floor serves as a lecture hall, a theater, and a banquet hall as needed.<sup>3</sup> The Iowa State Teachers College has provided a social center for college activities. In the Commons are recreational facilities, such as student lounges, faculty lounges, and club rooms--all completely equipped for carrying on the program of social education which is emphasized by the college as a distinct part of campus life.<sup>4</sup>

Placement service is a distinct part of the personnel program in many of the teachers colleges. For instance, the Mankato State Teachers College has a centralized placement office and keeps cumulative records for both alumni and students enrolled in the institution. The aim is to aid the public schools in securing teachers adapted for the work entailed and at the same time to place the student in the position for which he is fitted both by

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<sup>1</sup>Bulletin, Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, Catalog, 1940-42, XL (February, 1940), 19.

<sup>2</sup>Western State Teachers College Bulletin, XXXV (Spring, 1940), 31.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 32.

<sup>4</sup>Iowa State Teachers College, Catalog, 1940, p. 33.

personal and educational qualifications. The placement committee is comprised of the registrar, the director of personnel, the principal of the college high school, the principal of the college elementary school, one of the three rural supervisors, and the director of professional education as chairman.<sup>1</sup>

Francis W. Hibler of the Illinois State Normal University has formulated a set of principles of interest to those who are to set up a collegiate program in student personnel. Hibler advocates selective admission of candidates, individual guidance for students beginning with entering freshmen and continuing throughout the four years of college, a nondisciplinarian program based on the close relations between faculty and students, provision for specialists when expert advice is necessary, the use of upper-classmen as assistant counsellors, and the co-ordination of all phases of the personnel program, including attention to the problems and training of graduates in service.<sup>2</sup>

The summer workshop in teacher education.--The summer workshop in teacher education had its inception about five years ago, emanating from a conference between Ralph W. Tyler and Robert J. Havighurst. The suggestion was made there that part of a summer might well be used by the staff of the Eight-Year Study of the Commission on the Relation of School and College of the Progressive Education Association for some intensive work with teachers from the thirty selected secondary schools co-operating in that study. As the result, a summer workshop comprising a six-weeks' program was held in 1936 on the campus of the Ohio State Univer-

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<sup>1</sup>School Progress, Catalog, 1941-42, XXII (February, 1941), 109.

<sup>2</sup>Newsletter of the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education, Vol. I, No. 10 (July, 1941).

sity.<sup>1</sup> So successful was that first workshop that during the summer of 1937 a second workshop also sponsored by the Eight-Year Study was held on the campus of Sarah Lawrence College in Bronxville, New York.<sup>2</sup> By 1938 teachers from schools other than the thirty co-operating in the Eight-Year Study desired workshop experience. That summer the General Education Board financed four workshops with more than five hundred students in attendance.<sup>3</sup> The participants were selected individually by a committee attempting to choose only those engaged in significant educational programs. In 1940 the Commission on Teacher Education of the American Council on Education instituted a workshop program for the college and university faculty members associated with their study of teacher education.<sup>4</sup> Since that time plans have been perfected by a large number of universities, colleges, and school systems in every section of the country for workshops giving attention to both elementary and secondary school problems.

The workshop is a co-operative approach to the improvement of teachers in service. Many educators feel that it is the best means available for meeting the professional needs of experienced teachers, needs that range from the necessity for a better program of recreational activities to the practical problems of living with people in personal-social relationships. The workshop does not represent a uniform pattern. Conducted in an informal manner, it permits each participant to follow the line of his own interest. One individual may formulate his educational philosophy, one may define educational objectives, a third may learn how to

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<sup>1</sup>Heaton, Camp, and Diederich, op. cit., pp. 2 ff.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 4-8.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 8.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 9.



formulate or reorganize or vitalize the curriculum. Each is given the opportunity to make an intensive study of an interest that has arisen out of his experience as a teacher. He has a part in the planning of programs for individual and group activity designed to meet his needs. He is free at all times to consult various staff members representing a variety of kinds of assistance. That he may do in both a formal and an informal way.

Although there are variations in the schedules of workshops, certain similarities exist. These Heaton has classified as of eight types: (1) individual advisory conferences; (2) major work groups; (3) request groups; (4) general meetings; (5) school and school-district groups; (6) individual activities; (7) informal group activities; and (8) program planning and staff conferences.<sup>1</sup> The individual consults his adviser whenever he needs help in clarifying statements, in selecting references, in broadening understandings, and in overcoming obstacles. The participant finds it desirable to join one or more major work groups. Workshopppers frequently have common interests and profit by group work. Often request groups or special interest groups grow out of a major work group. In general meetings, staff members lecture on topics of widespread interest or engage in panel discussions or lead in informal discussions. School and school-district groups are organized for participants whose problems are of local significance. Enrollment in such groups frequently includes both administrators and classroom teachers from a single school or school district. Participants work individually in libraries and laboratories for independent reading, for thinking, for writing, and for other individual activities. Informal group activities often are recreational in nature. Some workshops schedule motion pictures, radio

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 45-60.

broadcasts, reading aloud, and group compositions of ballads interpreting social life. Ambitious groups have written script, produced plays, and made systematic surveys of community resources.

The summer workshop, nation-wide in scope, is a co-operative enterprise in experimentation, demonstration, and evaluation in the areas of teacher preparation and growth in service with every type of educational personnel represented. "The workshop has attempted to keep itself sensitive to the total range of the needs of the teacher and to keep its service sufficiently flexible for easy adjustment to the needs of the individual participants."<sup>1</sup>

Integration in teacher education.--Closely related to the laboratory approach to teacher education is the curriculum planned to give students integrated experiences. The integrated curriculum emphasizes individualization of instruction, self-direction, and self-appraisal. An experiment in curriculum improvement is the joint project of the Michigan state department of public instruction and of the faculty of Central State Teachers College, Mount Pleasant. The aim of the study is threefold: (1) the development of a general college curriculum at the junior-college level to meet the needs of students and to serve as the basis for professional or other specialized instruction; (2) the development of a program of teacher education adequate to the present needs in Michigan; and (3) experimentation with plans and techniques for the discovery of student needs and for the evaluation of the college program.<sup>2</sup> Begun in 1934, the project is based on the following eight principles: (1) preparation for mature living in all areas of relationships; (2) opportunity for a broad general education

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 20.

<sup>2</sup>Kenneth L. Heaton and G. Robert Koopman, A College Curriculum Based on Fundamental Needs of Students, pp. 1-6. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1936.

as well as for specialized education; (3) opportunity for individualized instruction; (4) acquisition of skills essential to group action; (5) acquisition of skills in self-direction and self-appraisal; (6) opportunity for maximum efficiency of instruction; (7) acquisition of integrated experiences as the result of instruction by faculty members and by specialists; and (8) modified behavior as the result of efficient instruction.<sup>1</sup> The experiment is one of the series of so-called "demonstration-research" projects sponsored by the department of public instruction for the improvement of general education in Michigan.

A study of the common needs of students of Central State Teachers College encouraged an objective attack upon the problem of curriculum reorganization. The faculty secured information as to the abilities, the knowledges, the understandings, and the appreciations of value which seemed of general significance to large numbers of students in social, personal, and family life.<sup>2</sup> Data were assembled from published surveys and research studies, from surveys and other studies made by the faculty of Central State Teachers College, from observations and accumulated experiences of faculty members and of specialists outside the faculty group, and from lists of objectives and syllabi prepared by other colleges interested in functional curriculums; that is, curriculums that provide integrated experiences for students.<sup>3</sup>

The reorganized work of the freshman year deals primarily with social relationships, that of the sophomore year deals with personal and family relationships; and the new work of the junior and senior years provides concentration in specialized education that is necessary in the area of vocational relationships.<sup>4</sup> Core

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 21-22.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 29-37.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 54-65.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., pp. 66-82.

courses of the first two years are in the basic fields of learning and include such titles as freshmen orientation, social processes, physical education, personality development, exploration in literature, introduction to the arts, the physical and the biological sciences, and functional mathematics.

No single method of instruction has been championed by Central State Teachers College. There are both individual and group activities.<sup>1</sup> The former find a large place in the curriculum, especially in mathematics, in reading, and in written expression. Each student is assigned to a laboratory group where he may have faculty supervision in pursuing his work. A maximum of thirty students constitutes each group. Group activities are treated by informal discussion, by the jury panel, by lectures, and by planned group interviews. Use is made also of motion pictures, exhibits, and other visual aids, and of dramatics.

Evaluation of results is a definite part of the program of curriculum construction in the Central State Teachers College. Students assist in both the development and the administration of instruments of measurement and have a definite part in the interpretation of results. Cumulative test records are available to students at all times. Emphasis is placed upon student appraisal of both his goals and of his achievements.<sup>2</sup> From the results of the Michigan experiment "it is evident," say Heaton and Koopman, "that both students and faculty have grown in ability to direct their own activities and in ability to co-operate with others. . . . There is evidence of a clarity of goals, greater enthusiasm for work, more efficient use of time in individual and group activities, and increased ability to achieve."<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 82-85.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 120.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 93.

In 1938 a committee was appointed in the College of Education of the University of Minnesota for the purpose of studying the curriculum now in operation in the junior-senior sequence. Criticism had been made of the curriculum on the ground that there is but little unity among the courses; that the work is theoretical and academic with no provision for the application of educational materials; that there is too much overlapping of courses or of sections of courses from quarter to quarter; and that there is not sufficient articulation between the work of the junior year and that of the senior year particularly with respect to the special methods courses and to student teaching during the senior year.<sup>1</sup>

For more than a year an experiment has been in progress at that university. Three general problems are being attacked: (1) What are the outcomes in terms of knowledge, understandings, skills, abilities, attitudes which a graduate of the College of Education should have? (2) What are the materials which will give the prospective teacher the outcomes believed to be desirable? (3) How can those materials best be organized into a sequence course?<sup>2</sup>

The year 1939-40 was used by the committee to devise more satisfactory examinations, to develop and to correlate the course content, and to find the means of instruction that would make the materials of the course as practical as possible.<sup>3</sup> A subcommittee was appointed to organize and to propose a program for an experimental course in education. That committee proposed to the full committee an innovating program as the means for studying the

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<sup>1</sup>Charles W. Boardman, Professor of Education, The University of Minnesota, Letter, December 14, 1940.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.



possibility of increased effectiveness through interrelationships of learning. The third-hour section of a course in education was chosen as the experimental section. The three instructors in the course met once a week to consider what had been done and to plan for the future. Much time was given in those conferences to the objectives of the course or to the outcomes sought. In so far as possible the objectives were reduced to specific outcomes for individual units of work. Classroom procedure consisted of lectures, class discussions, motion pictures, and demonstrations of every sort that would aid in learning and in acquiring skills, abilities, and insights.

Three means were used for evaluating the work of the course. First, conferences with students were held both by individual instructors and by all three instructors with selected groups of students. At the end of the year, each student filled out a questionnaire in which he evaluated each unit of the work for interest, difficulty, and value; each expressed his opinion concerning the techniques that had been used and offered his suggestions for improvement of the course; and achievement examinations of two kinds were administered: a test of information and a test designed to measure the ability of the student to apply information. The examinations were required of all students in all sections of the course so that comparisons could be made between the innovating section and the other sections. During the academic year 1940-41 both the third-hour section and the seventh-hour section co-operated in the program. The results of the enlarged program will be available in the fall of 1941.<sup>1</sup>

Similar programs are being devised for various state

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<sup>1</sup>Boardman, Progress Report of the Subcommittee on the Reorganization of the Junior Year Sequence, 1939-40.

teachers colleges in the Middle States. The Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, has established comprehensive courses in four areas of learning: English, science, social science, and literature.<sup>1</sup> Each course is one year in length. The college has assumed that during the freshman and the sophomore years the student should be given a comprehensive view rather than a specialized view in any field of knowledge. The comprehensive courses include information from many fields which contribute to the appreciation, the understanding, and the enjoyment of our contemporary civilization.<sup>2</sup> The laboratory school is the integrating center for the professional and the academic work. Faculty members of the academic departments teach special methods courses in the division of education and supervise in the laboratory school; members of the educational faculty administer the laboratory school, direct research, and assist in measuring instruction. They engage in such field service as rural-school visitation and personnel work.<sup>3</sup>

The preceding discussions seem adequate to show that the trend in teacher-educating institutions is definitely toward a general curriculum for the freshman and the sophomore years to meet the common needs of students in everyday living, to enable them to participate in planning and administering learning activities, and to provide for individual differences and needs. Some educators apparently feel that problems of curriculum improvement must be met co-operatively by faculty and students.

Five-year program in teacher education.--Since the fall

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<sup>1</sup>Bulletin of the Northeast Missouri State Teachers College, Kirksville, XL (February, 1940), 24.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 32.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 52.

of 1927 the Indiana State Teachers College and the Ball State Teachers College have both offered a fifth year of work in order to meet the requirement of the State Board of Education that candidates for a first-grade administrative license pursue a year of graduate work in an accredited institution of higher learning.<sup>1</sup> Terre Haute in 1929 conferred the Master's degree upon five candidates. Up to March, 1940, four hundred eighteen Master's degrees had been granted by that college. Graduate work was first offered only in the department of education. Academic departments now offering graduate study include English, foreign languages, mathematics, science, social studies, and speech. As the demand grows, graduate work will undoubtedly be offered in other academic fields.

The purpose of the fifth year of work is twofold: (1) to prepare for administrative licenses; and (2) to prepare master teachers in the departments in which graduate work is offered and in the elementary field.<sup>2</sup> Two options are allowed: the thesis option, and the non-thesis option. All work must be of C grade or better and must be completed within ten years from the time the student enters upon graduate work.<sup>3</sup> A baccalaureate degree from an institution accredited by the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools and affiliated associations or by the American Association of Teachers Colleges is required before a student may do graduate work.<sup>4</sup> All theses must be approved by the English department before final acceptance by the committee for the Master's degree.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Indiana State Teachers College Bulletin, Catalog, 1940-41, XXXIII (March, 1940), 187-92.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 187.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 189.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 188.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 189.

Three graduate curriculums are offered: (1) curriculums for the preparation for administrative and supervisory licenses comprising a superintendent's license, a high-school principal's license, and elementary-school principal's license, and an elementary supervisor's license; (2) a curriculum for the preparation of master elementary-school teachers and supervising elementary teachers in laboratory schools of teacher-educating institutions; and (3) a curriculum for the preparation of master secondary-school teachers and supervising secondary teachers in laboratory schools of teacher-educating institutions.<sup>1</sup> Each of the three curriculums is administered according to either the thesis option or the non-thesis option. If the student elects the former, he must complete a total curriculum hourage of forty-eight quarter hours; if he elects the latter, he must complete a total curriculum hourage of fifty-six quarter hours.<sup>2</sup> The required work on all curriculums is professional in character. A certain amount of academic work may be elected with permission of the student's committee.

Illinois has a five-year program for teacher education in process of formation. A general council has been organized for the six state-supported institutions of higher education comprising the five state teachers colleges and the University of Illinois.<sup>3</sup> A subcommittee of the council has been set up for the purpose of studying graduate work in the six state-supported institutions. The committee has recommended that a five-year program be organized in the six institutions for the preparation of teachers, supervisors, and administrative officers in both the elementary

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>F. H. Currens, Dean of the Faculty, Western Illinois State Teachers College, Macomb, Illinois, Letter, December 10, 1940.

and the secondary schools of the state.<sup>1</sup> The committee recommends further that a Bachelor's degree be granted upon the satisfactory completion of the four-year course, and a Master's degree, upon the satisfactory completion of the five-year course. If the recommendations of the committee are accepted by the state and put into operation, the work will be administered individually by the six institutions, but an attempt will be made to have the work uniform.<sup>2</sup> A further significant recommendation of the council is that preparation for teaching in the secondary schools be in terms of broad subject-matter fields rather than in terms of individual subjects, and that existing combinations of subjects be modified and reduced in number.<sup>3</sup> In connection with the proposed five-year program, the council is exploring the possibility of internship in relation to teacher education.<sup>4</sup> No data are at present available for publication with respect to any of the aforementioned proposals.

The University of Minnesota two years ago instituted five-year programs in the following fields: physical education for men, physical education for women, art education, music education, and industrial education.<sup>5</sup> The development of five-year curriculums in several academic fields is now under way at Minnesota, but no time has been specified for putting that type of program into operation.

The laboratory approach to teacher education.--The laboratory approach to teacher education is one of the several techniques of professional preparation currently to engage the attention of

<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Charles W. Boardman, Letter, December 14, 1940.



institutions authorized to prepare public-school teachers. That procedure affords the student opportunity of dealing at first hand with experiences in his educational environment, engaging in activities either voluntarily or pursuing them as regular course requirements. Experiences include activities on the campus and in the field. For illustrative purposes the laboratory approach in the College of Education of the Ohio State University is discussed in detail.

During the first two years all students in the college are given similar experiences in the basic fields of subject matter.<sup>1</sup> The freshmen are required to take the orientation course in education--a survey devoted largely to educational planning. Extensive use is made in the course of a variety of campus and community resources for the development of attitudes, personal, social, and professional. Usually during the freshman year also the student takes a course in educational psychology.<sup>2</sup> The course is administered in a laboratory containing wall charts, showcase exhibits, a motion-picture stand and projector, scrapbooks, psychological journals, and other materials for illustration. Students work and converse in small, informal groups around tables, even going from table to table for various activities. Tables are shifted frequently to broaden acquaintanceships. The instructors, mostly graduate students, by the informal laboratory procedure are able to study student personalities as well as student proficiencies.

The laboratory experiences, thus begun during the fall quarter of the freshman year, continue throughout the undergradu-

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<sup>1</sup>Adventures in the Reconstruction of Education, pp. 65 f. Edited by A. J. Klein. Columbus, Ohio: The Ohio State University, College of Education, 1941.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 94.

ate teacher-education program. They even extend into the graduate work of the college. Problems are classed under three general heads: laboratory programs on the campus; laboratory programs in the field; and laboratory programs in the special curriculums, such as science, industrial arts, physical education, music, and the fine arts.<sup>1</sup> For example, in courses for science teachers, students learn how to do practical things; they operate the motion-picture projector; they use a soldering iron; they develop pictures; they make simple equipment; they repair household appliances; they make slides and prepare cultures; and they construct and stock aquariums.

A very good example of a laboratory course, integrated and course-long, is the "book fair."<sup>2</sup> Having browsed in libraries and bookstores, the students in a children's literature class bought books not to exceed two and a half dollars a student. They then displayed colorfully and artistically their collection, with groups of students at each table to discuss the various books with students, parents, teachers, superintendents, and children. Book lists and recommendations for children's reading were widely requested. The students became so enthusiastic over the success of their "book fair" that they took the exhibit at their own expense into a number of rural schools. As a result, one county bought several hundred dollars' worth of children's books.

Two other types of laboratory experiences should be presented: the laboratory for the development of special skills and the laboratory where the students are themselves the "subjects" studied. A psychological clinic is held each Wednesday afternoon and each Saturday morning. In the laboratory, working with typical children, student clinicians obtain practical experience in deal-

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., pp. 98-99.

ing with real problems under the supervision of specialists.<sup>1</sup> On the average about six hundred examinations a year are given. During the year 1939 sixty students had genuine experience in the routine of testing. Every student preparing to teach may take at least a part of the clinical program. The nature of the psychological clinic is well portrayed in the following paragraph:

These students of course do not begin with such responsible work. They begin with class discussion of clinical problems, visits to schools and institutions, practice in a school office with children who present no special problems but are willing subjects for the fun of taking the tests. Gradually the watchful instructor permits the more advanced students to participate in the real work of the clinic. They meet and talk with children and parents in the clinic office. They learn how to put the shy youngsters at ease. In the clinic examining room they place a tot in a little red chair and themselves sit down at a low table beside him--literally getting down to the child's level. They see for themselves problems of child-parent relationships, have experience with children who protest--learn to be calm through such episodes and gradually to handle them better. In short they come to understand the work of a psychological clinic by actually participating in the many phases of its work. Later they may go to the children's hospital or the juvenile court. There they see the functioning of these interesting institutions and participate in their work.<sup>2</sup>

Laboratories where students are themselves the "subjects" studied are maintained for the purpose of studying and improving the student's own adjustment to his academic world.<sup>3</sup> In the winter of 1938 the student council organized a group of thirty men and thirty women for experiences in leadership. The University School gymnasium was used as the laboratory where students practiced upon themselves and discussed leadership problems. Each student acted in turn as leader. Later the group helped in parent-teacher association meetings and other gatherings. One student in the college kept a diary of the several activities daily practiced by twenty students throughout the academic year. The students did

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 100.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 102.

not know that they were being observed. The study was valuable to the individual as a student, as a person, and as a prospective teacher.

Field laboratory work begins also during the first quarter of the freshman year when students make excursions into the community of the university.<sup>1</sup> By reading, by case studies, by vicarious contacts students become acquainted with various types of communities. They go into the communities to study sociological problems; they see particular local schools and local children in sociological perspective. In September of the sophomore year, students get work experience in some school, usually in their home communities. They help in the school office, in the classrooms, and in the gymnasium; they mark papers; they assist in playground work; they tutor backward children; and they do miscellaneous work. Each student keeps a record of the things that he had done and later discusses his experiences with co-operating superintendents and teachers. The September project is evaluated in the following paragraph:

In the first year of this program (1938) 162 students participated in 97 school systems; about three-fifths worked in a high school, one-fifth in an elementary school, and one-fifth in both. The average student had association with at least three persons on the staff of the school. On the average, the students spent 55 per cent of their time in a classroom, and 5 per cent in the community. Fifty-nine per cent attended one or more faculty meetings. Practically everyone concerned was enthusiastic about the program; 44 per cent of the students stated that this was 'the most profitable thing I have ever done'--that they came to see the teacher's point of view, saw behind the scenes, convinced themselves that they wanted to teach or occasionally that they did not, came to a new realization of difficulties to be remedied as in speech, found that the experience had helped them decide in what grade or subject they wished to teach. Practically all the principals and teachers reported that the arrangement had been in their judgment of value to both students and school.<sup>2</sup>

The university school is a laboratory field for the univer-

<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 104.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 106.

sity. In that school projects may be observed.<sup>1</sup> In the spring quarter of the sophomore year students use the community as a laboratory for the study of social agencies bearing on the lives of children of elementary-school age.<sup>2</sup> Each student is required to take at least six investigational trips to such places as the juvenile court, the juvenile research bureau, the family-relations court, the detention home, the industrial school for girls, the day nurseries, the children's hospital, and the community-fund headquarters. During the latter part of the sophomore year students give direct aid to underprivileged children, taking them to such places as the zoo, museums, farms, stores, "movies." At the end of the sophomore year plans are made for summer experiences that will in any way contribute to professional development. Students gain experiences as camp counsellors, playground supervisors, attendants in day nurseries, and so on.

During the junior year, laboratory experiences are given in the schools as the basis for student teaching. The student first visits the experimental schools for professional orientation and understanding. He then serves in various capacities in a number of different types of schools--village, rural consolidated, and city. Finally, he spends a good deal of time in the particular school in which he is to teach. The college classrooms become laboratories where student groups discuss common problems.<sup>3</sup>

During the senior year students do actual teaching, having charge of classes for the full morning. In the afternoon they plan their work and participate in individual and group discussions in the elementary-education center--a room equipped with large

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 107.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 109.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 110.



tables around which students may gather for informal discussions, for conferences, and for committee work.<sup>1</sup>

Laboratory work in teacher preparation in the Ohio State University is in nature twofold: The primary aim of much of the work is specifically to prepare the student for the teaching of science or literature or other basic subject-matter courses, and to give students broad understanding of public-school pupils and their learning. Other and equally important laboratory work is designed expressly to enable the student to adjust himself both academically and professionally.

#### Summary

The current problems and practices in teacher education illustrate in a concrete way the fact that teacher education is moving rapidly away from the day when it consisted only of subject-matter courses and when its effectiveness could be measured in terms of the prospective teacher's ability to make satisfactory grades in those courses.<sup>2</sup> The state has recognized at least in part its obligation to correlate its entire educational program and to provide for both preservice and inservice preparation of all teachers. Candidates for teaching are being chosen by various selective processes, notably the comprehensive and the qualifying examinations. From impersonal guidance by objective tests and measurements teacher-educating institutions are attempting to bring about a guidance program in which the students themselves have a large share. Friendly, personal relationships are constantly being established between faculty members and students; students participate in many extracurriculum activities, sometimes

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Heaton, Camp, and Diederich, op. cit., p. 20.

independently, sometimes jointly with the faculty. Teacher-educating institutions are constantly promoting wider participation by the student in the planning and the administering of his own educational program. Institutions are analyzing the common and the basic needs of students in order to construct functional curriculums, curriculums that provide the students integrated experiences. Recognizing the fact that the education of teachers is a continuous process, states are providing inservice improvement of experienced teachers. A notable example is the summer workshop where the teacher spends some time making an intensive study under expert guidance of an interest that has developed from his experience as a teacher. In the workshop the participant receives various kinds of assistance in a co-operative enterprise. Recognizing, further, that well-rounded and thorough knowledge is essential to effective teaching, institutions authorized to prepare teachers for the public schools are recommending a five-year program for the preparation of master teachers in the field of both elementary and secondary education and internship plan of study in relation to the work toward the Master's degree in Education. Finally, in order to produce teachers of broad and sympathetic social understandings, teacher-educating institutions are by the laboratory approach offering students opportunity for firsthand experiences. By the laboratory method the prospective teacher is able to establish friendly relationships with children in their homes, in their community activities, and in summer camps; that is, they work with particular children in particular situations.

## CHAPTER XVIII

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

#### Summary

This study of teacher education in the Middle States began with the first efforts of educators to arouse public sentiment in favor of the professional preparation of public-school teachers and ended with a consideration of current problems and practices in teacher education. A brief summary with respect to teacher-educating agencies and their programs is presented here as background for the conclusions that are to follow.

The first professionally educated teachers in the public schools of the Middle States came from the eastern states; but early dissatisfaction with imported teachers gave rise to the demand for local teachers. The teachers' institute, the initial step for supplying professionally educated teachers, was but a supplementary agency. Soon educators turned to private institutions for the supply of teachers. However, the private institutions proved inadequate also. With the rise of public institutions, therefore, sentiment rapidly crystallized for using them as agencies for the professional education of teachers. For the purpose, union schools, high schools, and state universities were seriously considered. Graded schools and high schools did not prove fruitful as teacher-educating agencies, but they did provide the means for extending the background of prospective teachers. State universities were better adapted to the education of teachers than were schools of lower grade. But the need was mainly for elementary teachers, and the education required was of noncollegiate

character. Preparation of teachers for the elementary schools did not prove popular with the universities. Hence, their normal departments were either discontinued after a period of intermittent operation or were transformed into departments of education for the preparation of high-school teachers.

For the professional education of elementary teachers, the Middle States adopted the normal school, an agency specifically designed for the purpose. Until 1890 or for a period of more than fifty years, the normal school dominated the institutional preparation of public-school teachers. But with the unparalleled high-school development during the forty-year period from 1890 to 1930 and the consequent demand for an increased number of teachers for the high schools, a new type of teacher-educating agency was required. Departments of education in state universities and normal schools also had to go through institutional transformation before they could provide either the number or the kind of teachers needed for the high schools. The departments of education were equipped for adequate academic preparation, but they could not offer adequate professional preparation without first freeing themselves from the rigid control of the liberal arts colleges. They were required to gain an independent status similar to the status of the other professional schools in the university. When the status had been attained, schools or colleges of education and the state teachers colleges became the chief agencies for the education of high-school teachers. The teachers college was the transformed normal school, an institution that had attained full collegiate rank by raising admission requirements, by offering four years of collegiate work, and by meeting other college standards.

In the effort to keep the program for the education of

teachers in harmony with the social needs over a period of nearly a century, there were effected changes quite as marked if not so well delineated as those noted in the institutional agencies. At the outset, the program for the education of teachers consisted merely of reviews in the subjects to be taught and of professional work in theory and methods and in student teaching in the model school. As the program of the common school expanded and became enriched by incorporating the content of secondary-school subjects, of special subjects, and of extracurriculum activities, the program for the education of teachers expanded in like manner. The academic program of the college was eventually incorporated into the program for the education of teachers. With the development of new content in the field of educational psychology, of the psychology of the school subjects, of the psychology of child growth and development, and of tests and measurements, the program for the professional education of teachers underwent radical change. New courses of special significance to teachers were added. The professional program for the education of teachers was still further enriched by recent efforts in the direction of individualizing the program for the development of the human as well as the intellectual qualities of both prospective and experienced teachers. The personnel program in teacher-educating institutions illustrates the effort to bring out the human qualities in teachers.

### Conclusions

The study of teacher education in the Middle States has suggested certain conclusions, as follows:

1. Inasmuch as responsibility for universal education has been accepted by the state, the adequate preparation of teachers has also become a responsibility of the state. Therefore, the state should hold all institutions engaged in the education of



teachers morally responsible for a program of teacher education in keeping with the promotion of the welfare of the state.

2. Since, as a result of continuous social change, the adequate education of teachers is also a continuous process, the state is obligated to provide a program of both preservice and in-service education of teachers.

3. The character of the teachers needed determines the nature of the institutional pattern required for the education of teachers.

4. The unification of the program for the education of teachers is affected by the character of the agencies set up by the state for the administration and the supervision of teacher-educating institutions.

5. The curriculum for the education of teachers has continuously advanced throughout the history of teacher education; in general it has kept well in advance of the curriculum of the lower schools for which teachers have been educated.

6. Throughout the history of teacher education, the purposes of the professional and of the academic content have remained the same--the purpose of the professional content has been to provide technical education for teachers and the purpose of the academic content has been to provide a rich cultural background for teachers and opportunity for specialization in various subject-matter fields.

7. Throughout the period of this study students enrolled in teacher-educating institutions have not changed materially in chronological age and in the social, economic, and occupational classes from which they have come; but they have changed materially in their scholastic status; entering students have ranged from eighth-grade graduates at the beginning of teacher education in

the Middle States to high-school graduates at the present time.

8. State-wide co-operation in the education of teachers, selection of candidates for the teaching profession, personnel programs in teacher education, summer workshops in teacher education, integration of the program for teacher education, five-year programs for teacher education, and laboratory procedures in teacher education mark the major trends in teacher education of today.

# APPENDIX

## TABLE 20

PUPILS ENROLLED IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS<sup>a</sup>

| State      | 1889-90   | 1899-1900 | 1909-10   | 1919-20   | 1929-30   |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Illinois.. | 778,319   | 958,911   | 1,002,687 | 1,127,560 | 1,395,907 |
| Indiana... | 512,955   | 564,807   | 531,459   | 566,288   | 667,379   |
| Iowa.....  | 493,267   | 566,223   | 510,661   | 514,521   | 554,655   |
| Michigan.. | 427,032   | 504,985   | 541,501   | 691,674   | 970,582   |
| Minnesota. | 280,960   | 399,207   | 440,083   | 503,597   | 551,741   |
| Missouri.. | 620,314   | 719,817   | 707,031   | 672,483   | 656,073   |
| Ohio.....  | 797,489   | 829,160   | 838,080   | 1,020,663 | 1,277,636 |
| Wisconsin. | 351,723   | 445,142   | 464,311   | 465,243   | 564,022   |
| Totals..   | 4,262,059 | 4,988,252 | 5,035,813 | 5,562,029 | 6,637,995 |

<sup>a</sup>Data taken from the Biennial Survey of Education, 1928-30, II, Bulletin 1931, November 20, 49.

## TABLE 21

PUPILS ENROLLED IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY SCHOOLS<sup>a</sup>

| State      | 1889-90   | 1899-1900 | 1909-10   | 1919-20   | 1929-30   |
|------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Illinois.. | 761,786   | 921,465   | 939,557   | 999,866   | 1,004,506 |
| Indiana... | 504,556   | 538,392   | 487,660   | 487,772   | 496,661   |
| Iowa.....  | 481,553   | 537,201   | 471,122   | 462,554   | 411,763   |
| Michigan.. | 423,860   | 476,174   | 501,517   | 605,877   | 741,102   |
| Minnesota. | 275,515   | 386,897   | 413,406   | 442,221   | 425,808   |
| Missouri.. | 624,543   | 699,211   | 674,148   | 600,579   | 517,968   |
| Ohio.....  | 777,099   | 783,448   | 775,458   | 886,775   | 940,033   |
| Wisconsin. | 343,149   | 424,516   | 432,309   | 405,467   | 437,930   |
| Totals..   | 4,192,061 | 4,767,304 | 4,695,177 | 4,891,111 | 4,975,771 |

<sup>a</sup>Data compiled from Table 20 and Table 22.

TABLE 22  
PUPILS ENROLLED IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS<sup>x</sup>

| State       | 1889-90 <sup>a</sup> | 1899-1900 <sup>a</sup> | 1909-10 <sup>a</sup> | 1919-20 <sup>b</sup> | 1929-30 <sup>c</sup> |
|-------------|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Illinois..  | 16,533               | 37,446                 | 63,130               | 127,694              | 291,401              |
| Indiana...  | 8,399                | 26,415                 | 43,799               | 78,516               | 170,718              |
| Iowa.....   | 11,714               | 29,022                 | 39,539               | 51,967               | 142,892              |
| Michigan..  | 13,172               | 28,811                 | 39,984               | 85,797               | 229,480              |
| Minnesota.. | 5,445                | 12,310                 | 26,677               | 61,376               | 125,933              |
| Missouri... | 5,771                | 20,606                 | 32,883               | 71,904               | 138,105              |
| Ohio.....   | 20,390               | 45,712                 | 62,622               | 133,888              | 337,603              |
| Wisconsin.. | 8,574                | 20,626                 | 32,002               | 59,776               | 126,092              |
| Totals      | 89,998               | 220,948                | 340,636              | 670,918              | 1,552,224            |

<sup>x</sup>Data were secured from the following sources:

<sup>a</sup>Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1889-90, II, 1388; 1899-1900, II, 2129; and 1909-10, II, 1142.

<sup>b</sup>Biennial Survey of Education, 1918-20, Bulletin 1923, pp. 48-49.

<sup>c</sup>Ibid., 1928-30, II, Bulletin 1931, 705-06.

TABLE 23  
NUMBER OF PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS<sup>x</sup>

| State       | 1889-90 <sup>a</sup> | 1899-1900 <sup>a</sup> | 1909-10 <sup>a</sup> | 1919-20 <sup>b</sup> | 1929-30 <sup>c</sup> |
|-------------|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Illinois..  | 199                  | 344                    | 634                  | 810                  | 1,065                |
| Indiana...  | 109                  | 382                    | 631                  | 726                  | 869                  |
| Iowa.....   | 159                  | 344                    | 608                  | 794                  | 991                  |
| Michigan..  | 153                  | 294                    | 391                  | 496                  | 784                  |
| Minnesota.. | 77                   | 115                    | 202                  | 421                  | 576                  |
| Missouri... | 70                   | 234                    | 386                  | 549                  | 1,033                |
| Ohio.....   | 291                  | 678                    | 833                  | 915                  | 1,322                |
| Wisconsin.. | 126                  | 231                    | 273                  | 391                  | 489                  |
| Totals..    | 1,184                | 2,622                  | 3,958                | 5,102                | 7,159                |

<sup>x</sup>Data were secured from the following sources:

<sup>a</sup>Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1889-90, II, 1381; 1899-1900, II, 2129; and 1909-10, II, 1142.

<sup>b</sup>Biennial Survey of Education, 1918-20, Bulletin 1923, pp. 503-04.

<sup>c</sup>Ibid., 1928-30, II, 685.

TABLE 24  
TEACHERS IN PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOLS<sup>x</sup>

| State      | 1889-90 <sup>a</sup> | 1899-1900 <sup>a</sup> | 1909-10 <sup>a</sup> | 1919-20 <sup>b</sup> | 1929-30 <sup>c</sup> |
|------------|----------------------|------------------------|----------------------|----------------------|----------------------|
| Illinois.. | 699                  | 1,418                  | 2,738                | 6,256                | 11,933               |
| Indiana... | 412                  | 1,108                  | 2,051                | 4,221                | 7,791                |
| Iowa.....  | 577                  | 1,061                  | 1,909                | 4,577                | 6,494                |
| Michigan.. | 640                  | 1,087                  | 1,838                | 4,012                | 9,289                |
| Minnesota. | 304                  | 511                    | 1,210                | 3,272                | 5,268                |
| Missouri.. | 291                  | 745                    | 1,454                | 2,886                | 5,591                |
| Ohio.....  | 928                  | 1,717                  | 2,809                | 6,116                | 13,326               |
| Wisconsin. | 377                  | 790                    | 1,491                | 3,110                | 5,182                |
| Totals..   | 4,228                | 8,437                  | 15,500               | 34,450               | 64,874               |

<sup>x</sup>Data were secured from the following sources:

<sup>a</sup>Report of the Commissioner of Education, 1889-90, II, 1388; 1899-1900, II, 2129; and 1909-10, II, 1142.

<sup>b</sup>Biennial Survey of Education, 1918-20, Bulletin 1923, p. 503.

<sup>c</sup>Ibid., 1928-30, II, Bulletin 1931, 772-74. [Data compiled from Tables 47, 48, and 49.]



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